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A
HISTORICAL GEOGRAPHY
OF THE
BRITISH COLONIES

VOL. IV

SOUTH AFRICA—NEW EDITION

by Lucas

PART III—GEOGRAPHICAL

REVISED BY

A. BERRIEDALE KEITH, D.C.L.

WITH A MAP

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PREFACE TO NEW EDITION

IN the first issue of *The Historical Geography of the British Colonies* the second part of Volume IV, published in 1897, contained the geography of South Africa and the geography and history of Central and East Africa. A new edition of this part, revised by Professor Egerton, appeared in 1904.

The formation of the Union of South Africa has rendered necessary large additions to the matter contained in the former issues, and a full account has now been given of Swaziland and Northern Rhodesia. On the other hand the matter relating to Central Africa has been omitted, and a wholly new volume (Volume VII) will in due course be devoted to Central and East Africa.

The trade statistics of the Union and the rest of British South Africa are those for the year 1911 as arranged by Sir Sothorn Holland in his report on South African trade for that year. Those for 1912 were not available when this book was prepared, but, for the reasons given in Sir S. Holland's report for that period, they are of inferior value.

A. BERRIEDALE KEITH.

October, 1913.

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MAP

SOUTH AFRICA at the Present Day	<i>At end</i>
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BRITISH SOUTH AFRICA

INTRODUCTORY PORTER LIBRARY

BRITISH POSSESSIONS IN SOUTH AFRICA

SOUTH AFRICA, so far as it falls to be treated of in this book, contains at the present time three main divisions, under three distinct forms of government. The first consists of the Union of South Africa, created by the South Africa Act, 1909, of the Imperial Parliament, and embracing the four territories of the Cape of Good Hope, Natal, the Transvaal, and the Orange River Colony. The colonies have lost their status as colonies, and the Union itself is in law a colony, or in the language of recent Imperial Acts a self-governing Dominion. The Union enjoys responsible government in the fullest sense of the term, and in a much wider degree than such government was in fact enjoyed by the four colonies out of which it was formed. The second division consists of three territories controlled directly by the Governor-General of the Union in his capacity as High Commissioner for South Africa. In that capacity he acts directly under the instructions of the Secretary of State for the Colonies, to whom and not to the Union Government he is responsible for his action, though the combination of the two offices in one holder is intended to secure, and in fact does secure, that the administration of the territories shall be conducted with due regard to the interest of South Africa as a whole. The territories so governed are the colony of Basutoland, which

INTROD.

The Union.

The Territories.

INTROD. is a colony by cession, the Protectorate of Bechuanaland, which is a Protectorate in virtue of declarations of protection made by the King, and the Protectorate of Swaziland, which was a Protectorate of the South African Republic and which accordingly on the conquest of the Transvaal and its annexation by the Crown became a Protectorate of the Crown. The third division consists of the territories under the administration of the British South Africa Company, and are now divided into Southern Rhodesia and Northern Rhodesia, the latter including the territories formerly known as Barotseland—North-Western Rhodesia and North-Eastern Rhodesia. The administration of these territories is carried on by the Company, subject to a certain degree of control by the High Commissioner for South Africa and the Secretary of State for the Colonies.

Rhodesia.

Area and Population. The area and population of these divisions according to the latest figures available are as follows¹:—

I. UNION OF SOUTH AFRICA.

	Area.	Population.
1. Cape Province	276,995	2,564,965
2. Natal	35,371 ²	1,194,043
3. Transvaal	111,196 ³	1,686,212
4. Orange Free State	50,392 ⁴	528,174
Total	473,954	5,973,394

II. TERRITORIES UNDER THE HIGH COMMISSIONER.

1. Basutoland	10,293 ⁵	403,845 ⁶
2. Bechuanaland Protectorate	275,000	125,350
3. Swaziland	6,536	99,959
Total	291,829	629,154

¹ This table is in substance taken from Sir R. Sothorn Holland's Report on the Trade of British South Africa for 1912 (Parl. Paper, Cd. 6405), p. 3.

² Or 35,290, the figures adopted in the Union Census Report, pt. i, p. 62.

³ Or 110,426, as in the Census Report.

⁴ Or 50,389, as in the Census Report.

⁵ The area is also given as 11,716 square miles, as in the *Colonial Office List*. The revised return of population is 404,507; see Parl. Paper, Cd. 6007-29, p. 11.

III. TERRITORIES UNDER THE BRITISH SOUTH AFRICA COMPANY.				INTROD.
1. Southern Rhodesia	.	.	148,575	768,582
2. Northern Rhodesia	.	.	290,000	821,512 ¹
		Total	<u>438,575</u>	<u>1,590,094</u>
		Grand Total	<u>1,204,358</u>	<u>8,192,642</u>

The area of British South Africa is therefore roughly ten times that of the United Kingdom, and exceeds considerably that of Western Australia and is much more than a quarter of the area of Europe.

The main features of South African geography have already been alluded to in the preceding parts of this book. There are low-lying coast districts, there is the plateau or high veld of the interior, and between them there are terraces, rising one above another. Moreover the western side of the peninsula differs from the eastern, as containing fewer high mountains and fewer rivers, as having a lower average level and a larger extent of barren desert.

The Cape Province has a long seaboard and a great extent of coast country, but it also extends far into the inland plateau, and therefore contains within its borders nearly all the geographical conditions which are to be found in South Africa. Natal, on the eastern slope of the continent, comprises coast land and ascending terraces. It reaches the crest of the dividing range, but does not cross it into the high veld. Zululand is in the main a coast country; while Basutoland, which has often been called the Switzerland of South Africa, is an entirely inland territory, among the mountain heights whence flow the head-waters of the Caledon and Orange Rivers. Lastly the Orange Free State, the Transvaal, the Bechuanaland Protectorate, and Southern Rhodesia, form part of the great plateau of the African continent, with the ground, beyond the basin of the

¹ Probably 900,000 is more correct; see Report of British South Africa Company for 1911-2, p. 78.

INTROD. Limpopo, rising towards the north-east, so that Lake Ngami in the Kalahari desert is at a much lower level than Fort Salisbury in Mashonaland. Matabeleland and Mashonaland, together with the greater part of the Bechuanaland Protectorate, are within the tropics. North of the Zambesi is the great territory of Northern Rhodesia, including on the west the great plain of Barotseland and on the east the great plateau bounded on the north by Lake Tanganyika.

CHAPTER I

THE UNION OF SOUTH AFRICA—GOVERNMENT, POPULATION, DEFENCE, EDUCATION, AND NATIVE AFFAIRS

§ 1. THE GOVERNMENT OF THE UNION

THE form of government in force in the territories known since May 31, 1910, as the Cape of Good Hope, Natal, the Transvaal and the Orange Free State Provinces is correctly indicated by the title of the aggregate of the Provinces, the Union of South Africa. The final outcome of the efforts of South African statesmen to construct a federation of the Colonies of South Africa was the realization that a real federation was impracticable, and therefore the scheme of government embodied in the South Africa Act, 1909, sets up a single Legislature which, subject to the control of the Imperial Parliament and to restrictions imposed by Imperial Acts, alone has full power to make laws for the peace, order and good government of the Union. There is no subject on which the Parliament of the Union may not make laws, but the Act established Provincial Councils with limited legislative power within the several Provinces. The subjects which the Act places within the competence of the Provinces are direct taxation in order to raise a revenue for provincial purposes; the borrowing of money on the sole credit of the Province with the consent of the Governor-General in Council, and in accordance with regulations to be framed by Parliament; education other than higher education for a period of five years and thereafter until Parliament otherwise provides;

CH. I.

—♦—
Government.

*The Union
Parliament.*

*The
Provincial
Councils.*

PART III. agriculture subject to the extent and subject to the conditions to be defined by Parliament; the establishment, maintenance, and management of hospitals and charitable institutions; municipal institutions, divisional councils, and other local institutions of similar character; local works and undertakings within the Province, other than railways and harbours and other than such works as extend beyond the borders of the Province, and subject to the power of Parliament to declare any work a national work, and to provide for its construction by arrangement with the Provincial Council or otherwise; roads, outspans, ponts and bridges, other than bridges connecting two Provinces; markets and pounds; fish or game preservation; the imposition of punishment by fine penalty or imprisonment for enforcing any law or any ordinance of the Province made in relation to any matter falling within the legislative competence of the Provincial Council; generally all matters which in the opinion of the Governor-General in Council are of a merely local or private nature in the Province; and all other subjects in respect of which Parliament shall by any law delegate the power of making ordinances to the Provincial Council. By Act No. 17 of 1912, the Governor-General in Council, with the consent of the Executive Committee of the Province, may transfer to any Province power to legislate in respect of various local matters, including grants to agricultural societies; destruction of noxious weeds and vermin; the experimental cultivation of sugar, tea, and vines; the administration of libraries and public places of recreation; the administration of cemeteries; the distribution of poor relief; the regulation of the hours of opening and closing of shops and restriction of hours of labour of shop assistants; the establishment of townships; licensing of vehicles, and horse-racing.

In cases where a Provincial Council has no power to legislate it is at liberty to recommend to Parliament the passing of legislation, and in case of matters which require

to be dealt with by private Acts, the Council may take evidence, and upon the receipt of a report from the Council with the evidence taken the Parliament may proceed to pass the proposed Act without taking further evidence in support of the measure.

CH. I.



The control of the Executive Government of the Union over the legislation of the Provinces is secured by the provision that any ordinance must be assented to by the Governor-General in Council if it is to have any validity, and though that assent once given cannot be withdrawn, the provisions of any ordinance can be annulled at any time by an Act of the Union Parliament covering the same ground, as no ordinance has any validity except in so far as it is not repugnant to any law of the Union for the time being in force in the Province.

*Control of
the Union
over
Provincial
Legisla-
tion.*

The Parliament of the Union is bicameral, consisting of a Senate and a House of Assembly. It holds its sessions at Cape Town, and there must be a session once a year. The Senate for the first ten years of its existence cannot be dissolved, and has been constituted of forty members. Of these eight were nominated by the Governor-General in Council, four being chosen because of their thorough acquaintance by reason of official experience or otherwise with the reasonable wants and wishes of the coloured population of the Union, while eight for each of the four Provinces were elected by the two houses of the existing colonial Legislatures sitting together, on the principle of proportional representation with the single transferable vote. After the first ten years the Senate will be constituted by the nomination of eight members as before and by the election of eight for each Province by the same mode of election but by an electorate consisting of the members of the Provincial Council for the Province sitting together with the members of the House of Assembly of the Province. A senator must be thirty years of age, be a British subject of European descent.

*The
Senate.*

PART III. be qualified to be registered as a voter for the House of Assembly, and be in the case of an elected senator the registered owner of immovable property within the Union of the value of not less than £500 over and above any special mortgages, and he must have resided five years in the Union. After the first ten years the senators will hold office for ten years, but their term may be shortened if the Governor-General should dissolve the Senate as he has power to do when dissolving the House of Assembly.

*The House
of
Assembly.*

The House of Assembly consists of 121 members, of whom the Cape elects fifty-one, the Transvaal thirty-six, and Natal and the Orange Free State seventeen apiece. Provision is made for the increase of the number up to 150 in accordance with the increase of the population from time to time; when that figure has been reached, unless new provision is made by the Union Parliament, the proportions will be so adjusted as to secure a proportionate representation of the provinces based on the European male adult population. The first electorates were specially delimited by a Commission, and after each quinquennial census a new delimitation is provided for: the basis of the division of the electorates is single member constituencies with equal numbers of voters, but permission is given for a divergence not exceeding fifteen per cent. on either side in order to allow of the due observance of considerations of community or diversity of interests, means of communication, physical features, existing electoral boundaries, and sparcity or density of population. The first of these re-delimitations took place in 1913; the results of the census were to give the Transvaal nine extra members, increasing their number to forty-five, and to leave the numbers of the other Provinces unchanged. The Parliament may regulate the franchise, but subject to the requirement that any law, which restricts on ground of race or colour the franchise as existing in the Cape at the time of Union, must be passed by the two houses sitting

together and at the third reading be approved by not less than two-thirds of the total members of the two houses. This power* has not been exercised, and therefore the Parliamentary franchise is still regulated by the old colonial laws, details of which will be found under the several Provinces. In the case of members of the Assembly five years' residence, qualification to be registered as a voter, and British nationality and European descent are required.

Both houses elect their presiding officer, a President in the case of the Senate, a Speaker in the case of the Assembly: *Qualifications of Members.* these officers have only a casting vote in case of equality of votes. The quorum for the upper house is fixed at twelve, for the lower at thirty. A member of either house cannot be a member of the other, and there are in both cases the usual disqualifications of conviction for certain crimes, bankruptcy, insolvency, and the tenure of office under the Crown other than ministerial office or the receipt of a pension or the holding of certain military and naval offices. Members of both houses receive pay at the rate of £400 a year with a deduction of £3 for each day's absence, and both houses have power to make rules of procedure, while their powers and privileges have been defined by an Act of 1911 of the Union Parliament to be generally similar to those of the Imperial House of Commons. *Relations of Houses.* The relations of the two houses are defined in the constitution. The Senate cannot deal with any taxation or appropriation bill which has not originated in the lower house, nor may it amend any bill which imposes taxation or appropriates revenue for the services of the Government, nor may it amend any bill so as to increase any proposed charge or burden on the people. On the other hand the Assembly may not insert in the bill for the appropriation of monies for the ordinary annual services of the Government any other provision; disagreements continued for two sessions may be solved by the calling by the Governor-General in the second session of

PART III. joint sitting of the two houses, when a majority of those present will decide the fate of the measure. In the case of the rejection of a bill dealing with the appropriation of moneys for the public service the joint sitting can be summoned in the same session as that in which the rejection took place.

Imperial Control.

Imperial control over the legislation of the Union is preserved in the right of the Governor-General to refuse assent to or reserve any bill, and in the right of the Crown to disallow any bill even if assented to by the Governor-General within one year from the date of assent. Similarly a reserved bill becomes void unless assented to by the King within a year from the date of its presentation to the Governor-General.

The Provincial Councils.

The number of members in the Provincial Councils is fixed at the same number as from time to time exists in the House of Assembly for the Provinces. But in the case of Natal and the Orange Free State the number is fixed at twenty-five. The electors are the same as those for the House of Assembly, and the persons eligible as members include all those entitled to vote. A Provincial Council is not liable to dissolution, and lasts three years as against the five years of the House of Assembly. Each Council must meet at least once a year, and it elects its own chairman, and may make rules for the conduct of its proceedings which are valid unless disallowed by the Governor-General in Council.

Executive Government in the Union.

The executive government of the Union is vested in the King, and may be exercised by His Majesty in person, or by the Governor-General as his representative. In the exercise of his functions the Governor-General appointed by the sovereign is advised by an Executive Council which he appoints and the members of which he may remove. The Council must, however, include those officers not exceeding ten in number who are appointed to administer the chief departments of State, and these officers are subjected to the control of Parliament by the requirement that they may not hold office for more than three months unless they are or

become members of Parliament. Re-election on appointment to ministerial office is not required. The seat of the Executive Government of South Africa is Pretoria, which is the capital for all purposes except the session of the Parliament at Cape Town, and of the Appellate Division of the Supreme Court at Bloemfontein.

In the Provinces the administrative functions relative to matters which fall within the sphere of provincial legislation as above defined are vested in an executive committee consisting of an Administrator of the Province appointed by the Governor-General in Council and paid by the Union, and of four members elected on the principle of proportional representation with the single transferable vote by the members of the Provincial Council. The Administrator is not empowered to override their advice, but he has in case of equality of division among the members present a casting vote. In matters outside the powers of the Council the Administrator is called upon to act irrespective of the committee if required to act on behalf of the Governor-General in Council. The Administrator holds office for five years unless sooner removed by the Governor-General in Council for cause assigned and explained to Parliament, and the other members until the appointment of their successors in office. The Administrator as an officer of the Union Government has the important duty of recommending appropriations of revenue to the Council, and his presence in the committee secures a continuity of touch between the Provincial and the Union executives.

In addition to minor courts in which jurisdiction is exercised by magistrates, each Province has a Provincial Division of the Supreme Court of South Africa with its head-quarters in the capital cities of the Provinces, Capetown, Pietermaritzburg, Pretoria, and Bloemfontein. The Cape Division consists of a Judge President and four puisne judges, and there is a Local Division for the Eastern Districts with three

*In the
Provinces.*

*The
Supreme
Court.*

PART III. judges: one judge also sits when necessary to constitute the Local Division of Griqualand West; under Act No. 27 of 1912 any judge of a Province or Local Division may hold the post. In Natal the Division includes a Judge President and four puisne judges, and there is a Native High Court with jurisdiction in cases affecting natives, composed of four judges. In the Transvaal there are seven puisne judges in addition to the Judge President, and subordinate to the Provincial Court is a local court for the Witwatersrand. In the Orange Free State the Division consists of a Judge President and two judges. In addition to these Divisional and Local Courts the Supreme Court contains an Appellate Division consisting of a Chief Justice, two ordinary judges of appeal, and two additional judges of appeal. To that Division appeals lie generally from the Supreme Divisional Courts both provincial and local in all cases in which appeals formerly could be brought to the King in Council or in the case of the Local Divisions, formerly Superior Courts, to the Supreme Courts of the Colonies. There is no appeal of right, except in Admiralty cases, to the King in Council from the Appellate Division, but an appeal may be allowed by special leave, and though the Parliament of the Union may limit the cases in which special leave may be asked, any bill for this purpose must be reserved by the Governor-General.¹ The Appellate Division is required as a rule to sit at Bloemfontein, but it may sit elsewhere for the convenience of litigants. There are provisions in a Union Act No. 27 of 1912, facilitating the execution of process issuing from one court in other parts of the Union, but there is no assimilation of the law in the several parts of the Union, and the legal professions in the four Provinces remain perfectly distinct.

¹ No such Act has been passed; rules have been made regulating the procedure in cases of appeal by special leave from the Appellate Division.

The financial relations of the Provinces and the Union were left in a transition state by the Union Act, and, though reported on by a Commission as contemplated in the Union Act, have not yet been finally adjusted. All the Crown lands, public works, monies, bank balances, and other assets of the Colonies were transferred to the Union together with the debts of the Colonies, and the settlement of the financial relations of the Central Government and the Provinces was assigned to a financial Commission representing each Province under the presidency of an Imperial officer, and to the decision of Parliament on the recommendations of the Commission. In the meantime, and until Parliament decided on its line of action, the Union Government were bound to pay to the Provinces each year a sum equalling the amount voted in 1908 for purposes of education other than higher education by the Colonial Legislatures, and such other sums as the Union Government considered necessary. The Provincial Councils were required to submit to the Union Government their estimates of revenue and expenditure, and no expenditure could be incurred without the approval of the Governor-General in Council. By Act No. 10 of 1913 a settlement of the relations of the Central and Provincial Governments is made for the four years ending April 1, 1914. The Union shall pay half the normal expenditure of each Province, but if in any year that expenditure is more than seven and a half per cent. in excess of that for the preceding year, the Province in the next succeeding year shall be entitled only to a third of the excess over seven and a half per cent. The Union also transfers to the Province the revenues from, and legislative control over, certain fees, including auction dues, hospital and education fees, game, trade, and dog licences, totalizator fees, &c. The revenues from transfer and liquor duties, and in the case of the Transvaal from licences paid by employers of labour, are also assigned to the Provinces, but no power of legislation is conceded in this case. Special grants of £100,000

PART III. each a year are to be made to the Orange Free State and Natal.

—♦— Loans for capital expenditure on works, roads, and bridges will be made by the Union, and the interest and sinking fund payments will be reckoned in the normal expenditure of each Province.

*Railways
and
Harbours.*

Special provision is made for the ports, harbours, and railways of the Union, which are vested in the Governor-General in Council, but are subjected to the management of a Board consisting of three Commissioners appointed by the Governor-General in Council and a Minister of State who is chairman. The railways, harbours, and ports must be managed on business principles, due regard being had to agricultural and industrial development within the Union and promotion by means of cheap transport of the settlement of an agricultural and industrial population in the inland parts of all provinces of the Union. The Board must be consulted before any new railways or harbours are constructed, and, if they are required to carry out works which they consider will not be remunerative as business propositions, the amount of the loss must be made good out of the Consolidated Revenue Fund. The Railways and Harbour services are regulated by Act No. 28 of 1912.

Languages. Both the English and the Dutch languages are official languages in the Union, and must be treated on a footing of equality, and enjoy equal freedom, rights, and privileges.¹ All records, proceedings, and journals of Parliament are kept in both languages, and all bills, Acts and public notices of the Union must be in both languages. Free trade exists throughout the Union, and naturalization in one Colony has effect throughout the whole area of the Union.

*Civil
Service.*

The existing officers of the civil service in the Colonies at

¹ Officers of the Defence Forces must be able to give orders in both languages, but the men are trained in the one they best know (Act No. 13, 1912, s. 52). Public servants joining after the passing of Act No. 29, 1912, must pass an examination in both languages to earn promotion (s. 11).

the time of Union were divided among the Provincial administrations and the Union Government by a Commission, and the civil service of the Union is regulated by an Act No. 29 of 1912. The principle adopted under that Act is that a Commission of three members shall control the civil service subject to the superior authority of the Governor-General in Council, that admission to the civil service shall be by examination, and that promotion shall be dependent on merit. The entrance examination is so arranged that those candidates who have higher qualifications, such as University degrees, can join the service at a later age and a higher rate of pay than the ordinary candidates. Special provisions are made for filling professional posts and posts requiring technical qualifications, while yet other regulations are applied to the officials of the railway and allied services. The principle of superannuation allowances is generally adopted and applied to the established members of the civil service.

The control and administration of native affairs, and of matters especially or differentially affecting Asiatics throughout the Union is vested in the Governor-General in Council, who exercises all special powers in regard to native administration hitherto vested in the Governors of the Colonies or exercised by them as Supreme Chiefs; and the lands vested in the Governors or Governors in Council of the Colonies are vested in the Governor-General in Council, and no lands which at the establishment of the Union could not be alienated from the natives save by a legislative Act can be alienated except under the authority of an Act of the Union.

The Parliament may alter the boundaries of any Province, divide a Province into two or more Provinces, or form a new Province out of Provinces within the Union on the petition of the Provincial Council of every Province whose boundaries are affected thereby. Moreover, the King, on the advice of the Privy Council, may on addresses from the House of Parliament of the Union, admit into the Union the territories

*Admission
of the
Native
Territories
and
Rhodesia.*

PART III. administered by the British South Africa Company on such terms and conditions as are expressed in the addresses and approved by the King, and on similar addresses the King may transfer to the Union the government of any territories, other than territories administered by the British South Africa Company, belonging to or under the protection of the King and inhabited wholly or in part by natives, and upon such transfer the Governor-General in Council may undertake the government of the territories on the terms laid down in the Act.

*Alteration
of the Con-
stitution.*

The constitution is alterable as a general rule by a simple Act of the Union Parliament. But any Act to abolish or interfere with the powers of Provincial Councils or to alter the provisions of the Act regarding the House of Assembly must be reserved, and any Act which alters the provisions of the constitution as to the number of members in the Assembly, redistribution of members, and qualifications of electors, or the rule of the equality of languages, must be passed by the two houses in a joint session, and on the third reading be agreed to by not less than two-thirds of the total members of the two houses.

§ 2. POPULATION

*Census of
1911.*

The census of the Union of South Africa was taken on May 7, 1911, and its results can be compared with those of the last previous census, that of April 17, 1904, which was taken in the four Colonies which now form the Provinces of the Union. Before the date of the 1904 census there was no trustworthy evidence of the exact number of the population, either of the Orange River Colony or the Transvaal.

Totals.

The result of the census of 1911 showed that the total population of the whole of the Union amounted to 5,973,394 persons of all races, as compared with 5,175,824 in 1904. The males in 1911 were 3,069,392 as against 2,904,002



females, while in 1904 the corresponding figures were 2,682,235 and 2,493,589. The European or white population only numbered 1,276,242, of whom 685,164 were men, and 591,078 women: the figures in 1904 were 1,116,806, 635,117, and 481,689 respectively. There are no figures showing the proportions of the British and Dutch elements of the population. Natal is pre-eminently British, the Free State Dutch, while in the Cape and the Transvaal the division is more nearly equal. The numbers of non-Europeans increased from 4,059,018 to 4,697,152, men increasing from 2,047,118 to 2,384,228 and women from 2,011,900 to 2,312,924.

The percentages of increase are of importance: the total increase amounted to 15.41 per cent., and that of Europeans to 14.28, while that of non-Europeans reached 15.72. But while the increase in the total number of females was larger than in that of males, the increase being for females 16.46 against 14.43, the two races showed very different proportions. In the case of Europeans the increase of men was only 7.88 per cent., that of women, 22.71: in the case of the natives men increased by 16.47 and women by 14.96 only, a fact which throws a considerable light on the comparative social condition of the two peoples.

Of non-Europeans by far the most important were the different members of the Bantu race. They totalled in 1911 4,019,006 as against 3,491,056 in 1904. In that year the women outnumbered the men by 1,753,937 to 1,737,119, but in 1911 the proportions were reversed, men numbering 2,022,949 to 1,996,057 women. The rate of increase of the Bantus was only slightly higher in the aggregate than that of the white race, standing at 15.12 per cent., 16.45 for men and 13.80 for women.

The other main subdivision of the non-European people contrasted in rate of increase with the Bantu race. The total number of the non-Bantu and non-European races increased from 567,962 to 678,146, men increasing from

PART III. 309,999 to 361,279 and women from 257,963 to 316,867.

—♦— The rate of increase of men was therefore hardly greater than among the Bantu races, reaching 16.54, but that of women, 22.83, exceeded slightly the rate of increase of white women. The total rate was 19.40, thus placing these people at the head in rate of growth.

Of the subdivisions of the Bantu people the census distinguished the following: the Baca, 55,531; the Basuto, 745,448; the Bavenda, 89,019; the Bechuana, 269,114; the Bomvana, 13,420; the Damara, 4,979; the Fingo, 347,749; Hlangweni, 8,326; the Kaffirs, 12,577; the Ndebele, 59,582; the Pondos, 236,256; the Pandomise, 56,323; the Swazi, 125,007; the Tonga, 184,378; the Tembus, 277,405; the Xesibi, 14,674; the Xosa, 399,941; the Zulus, 1,037,446; Southern Rhodesians, 10,256; Northern Rhodesian tribes, 2,238; Nyasaland Protectorate tribes, 8,401; Portuguese East African tribes, 58,603; and other tribes, 2,333.

Of the non-Bantu tribes the Hottentots, including Bushmen, Koranna and Namaqua, numbered 56,036; Cape Malays were 21,373; mixed people, 435,288; Griquas, 7,759; Mozambique natives, 1,760; Chinese, 1,905; Indians, 149,791; of other nations only small numbers were enumerated, including Afghans, 52, American coloured persons, 219; Arabs, 346; creole, 118; Egyptian, 66; Krooman, 110; Malagasy, 119; Mauritians, 895; St. Helenans, 1,340; Syrian, 109; West Indian, 152; Zanzibaris, 411, and other still smaller numbers totalling 297.

The white population thus formed 21.37 of the total population, a larger proportion than any other single element. The Zulus came next with 17.37 of the whole, then the Basutos with 12.48; the mixed people numbered 7.22 per cent., and the only other substantial elements were Xosa, 6.70, Fingo, 5.82, Tembu, 4.64, and Bechuana, 4.51.

*Education
Statistics.*

The returns of the education of the people showed that

75·34 per cent. could neither read nor write, 1·40 per cent. could read only, and 23·16 could read and write. Of the Bantus 91·98 were illiterate ; of the mixed and other coloured races 76·06 and even of the white race 22·55 were wholly illiterate. The Provincial figures showed that Natal possessed the highest proportion of literate white persons, 81·59 per cent., but the lowest proportion of literate Bantus, 3·11 ; and the Free State, where the proportion of literate whites fell to its lowest, 73·16, had the highest proportion of Bantus able to read and write, 9·95. The Cape naturally showed the highest proportion of literacy among all non-European races, 12·57 per cent., though as regards non-Bantu races its percentage of 23·63 was surpassed by the figure of 29·72 reached in the Transvaal.

Of the religions of the people the Christian claimed 2,730,729. Of these the Dutch Reformed Church accounted for 898,600 ; the various Anglican churches, including the Church of England, the Church of the Province of South Africa, the Church of Ireland, the Episcopal Church of Scotland, and the Episcopalian, 532,489. The Presbyterian Church came a long way behind with 130,747 adherents. Of the other denominations the Independents or Congregationalists numbered 160,358 ; the Wesleyan Methodists, 536,419 ; the Lutherans, 143,269 ; and the Church of Rome, 91,035. Other denominations present in varying numbers were the United Methodist Church in its various branches, 59,156 ; London Missionary Society, 27,026 ; Baptist, 26,293 ; Rhenish Mission, 23,578 ; Berlin Mission, 23,492 ; and Moravians, 21,497. There were also small numbers of minor sects, including Protestants, 11,174 ; Christian Brethren, Christian Scientists, French Protestant Church, Paris Missionary Society, Plymouth Brethren, Salvation Army, Seventh Day Adventists, Friends, Swedenborgians, Primitive Methodists and others.

*Statistics
of
Religions.*

*Non-
Christian
Faiths.*

Of the non-Christian faiths Hinduism was represented by

PART III. 115,701 persons. There were 45,904 Mohammedans, 46,926 Jews, and small numbers of Buddhists, Confucians, and Parsis. Deists, Spiritualists, Universalists, Theists and others counted under 1,200 adherents, while 3,014,869 returned themselves as having no religion, including of course in that number those tribesmen who have not definitely adopted any faith, and whose own beliefs cannot conveniently be defined under any of the heads of classification adopted in the census returns.

Occupations.

The statistics of occupations showed how decisively the white race had engrossed the control of the higher pursuits. Of 73,775 persons described as engaged in professional occupations 59,721 were Europeans, of 124,092 persons engaged in commercial pursuits 81,627 were Europeans; there were also 192,424 persons engaged in agricultural occupations, and 143,205 engaged in industrial work. Of the Bantus 1,864,625 were engaged in agriculture, and only 356,041 in industrial work. In the case of the non-Bantu races the corresponding figures were 129,208 and 77,432.

§ 3. DEFENCE

The Imperial Garrison.

Before the outbreak of the Boer War in 1899 the Imperial Government had gradually been taking steps to reduce the garrison retained in South Africa to the number required to meet Imperial obligations alone, namely the defence of the naval station at Table Bay, and the safety of the Protectorates and Basutoland for the administration of which the High Commissioner was directly responsible to the British Government. The Government of the Cape were warned, when the concession of responsible government was made in 1872, that it carried with it the removal of Imperial troops except in so far as they were required for strictly Imperial purposes, and the same intimation was made to Natal before self-government was conceded in 1893. The difficulty Natal found in

preparing a defence force adequate to counter possible native risings led to the postponement of the final withdrawal of the troops from that Colony; the outbreak of hostilities with the Boer Republics led to the retention after the war of garrisons in considerable strength all over South Africa, while the outbreak of the disturbances in Zululand in 1906-8 retarded the removal of the troops, though they were not actually employed in the operations in the field. Pending the organization of Union defence on an adequate basis, troops were still up to the end of 1912 retained in the country in numbers considerably in excess of those requisite on mere Imperial grounds, detachments being posted at the end of 1912 at Pretoria, at Potchefstroom, at Bloemfontein, as well as at Cape Town. It is not, however, contemplated that these troops shall be permanently retained: the greater part will be removed when the Union scheme of defence which is now in operation has taken its complete development, and when the Union will assume in effect the full responsibility for the preservation of internal order in the territories of the Union, and indeed generally in South Africa.

The defence of South Africa is provided for in Act No. 13 of 1912, which furnishes a comprehensive code of legislation superseding all the existing militia and volunteer Acts of the Colonies. The scheme is based on the recognition of the liability of every citizen not merely to serve if danger threatens the country, but to make himself efficient in time of peace to render this service. But, as training of every citizen would unnecessarily complicate the finances of defence, the plan is adopted of training approximately fifty per cent. of the number liable. The liability becomes operative on a citizen's twenty-first year, and consists of a course of training extending for four years. The course will commence with simple recruit training not exceeding thirty days, of which twenty-two may be continuous training, and then proceed to a period of continuous annual training not exceeding twenty-one days,

*The Union
Forces.*

PART III. and probably varying from eight to fifteen days in the various arms, together with day drills for infantry. The training may, however, at the option of the citizen begin in the seventeenth year. Those who do not undergo the training will be required to serve as members of rifle clubs. Normally the citizen will be at liberty to choose whether he will undergo training or serve in a rifle club, the proposal made in 1911 that in the latter case he shall pay £1 tax a year having been dropped; but, if the supply of voluntary recruits for the training is inadequate, service may be made compulsory, and the number required to make up the deficit be secured by ballot. Coloured persons are exempt from training or contribution in lieu, and an option is given to citizens to undergo training and to serve in the naval reserve, of which branches have been established at the Cape and Natal, in place of military training and service in time of war.

*The Active
Citizen
Force.*

The first line of defence consists of the Active Citizen Force, viz. the citizens in training from the ages of seventeen to twenty-five, officered by citizen officers who agree to serve for at least twelve years; the second line consists of the Citizen Force Reserve, divided into two sections, including all citizens between twenty-one and forty-five years who have either been trained or who have served in rifle clubs; and the national reserve, including all citizens under sixty-one years of age, will form the third line upon whose services a call might be made in a grave emergency. The citizen forces will be strengthened by the presence as a permanent force of five regiments of Mounted Riflemen, of which one regiment will be stationed in the Transvaal, Orange Free State and Natal respectively, and two in the Cape, absorbing the Cape Mounted Riflemen. These forces will provide a highly trained and mobile force, ready to meet any emergency, and they will be employed in police duties in time of peace, much as the South African Constabulary were so employed in the Transvaal and Orange River Colony after the war. A small number of units of artillery will be attached

*Mounted
Riflemen.*

to the regiments, and a permanent administrative and instructional staff is provided for, though on a small scale. For coast defence purposes corps of South African garrison artillery and a South African Coast Defence Corps have been established, which will be trained to support the forces available for the defence of the Cape Peninsula and Durban in case of war. The cost of the scheme was estimated in 1911 at about £300,000 a year above that of the existing forces, the numbers of the riflemen being placed at 2,500, and of the active citizen force at 20,000 to 25,000. The estimated cost is now £1,172,000, of which about £852,000 represents the existing cost of the old forces. The prospects of these numbers being attained without recourse to the ballot seem confirmed by the satisfactory results of the applications for training which have followed the inauguration of the scheme in June, 1912.

The scheme of 1911, as carried out in 1912, did not make any further provision for naval defence than that already mentioned, the permitting of the substitution of naval for military training, and of service in the Royal Naval Reserve with the Imperial navy in place of military training and services in a military capacity in time of war. Oversea defence was recognized as still appertaining to the Imperial Government. The result, however, of the proposal of the Dominion of Canada in 1912 to contribute \$35,000,000 towards the cost of providing additional battleships to be placed at the disposal of the Imperial Government resulted in the discussion in South Africa of the possibility of some greater participation in Imperial defence. To South Africa also was addressed the invitation of the Imperial Government of December 10, 1912, to be represented by a Minister, resident for part of the year in London, on the Committee of Imperial Defence and to enjoy participation in knowledge of the foreign policy of the Empire. The result of the discussion was seen in the announcement, on the opening of the third *Naval Defence.*

PART III. session of the Union Parliament in 1913, that the Government had the matter under consideration, and proposed before adopting any policy to confer further with the Imperial Government, thus foreshadowing some decision to assist in naval defence, whether by the Australian plan of a squadron locally controlled in time of peace, or by the New Zealand plan of a contribution towards naval defence in general.

§ 4. EDUCATION

Higher Education. The constitution leaves to the Provinces for a period of five years, at any rate, the control of elementary education, and for practical purposes the Union has left to the Provinces the control of education other than post-matriculation instruction. There fall, therefore, under the control of the Union Government the University of the Cape of Good Hope, established in 1873 by Act No. 16 of the Colonial Legislature; the South African College at Cape Town, founded in 1829, and regulated by Act No. 15 of 1878; Victoria College, Stellenbosch, incorporated by Act No. 9 of 1881; Rhodes University College, Grahamstown, incorporated by Act No. 21 of 1904; the Huguenot College, Wellington, incorporated by Act No. 27 of 1907; Grey University College, Bloemfontein, incorporated by Act No. 5 of 1910; the Transvaal University College, Pretoria, incorporated by Act No. 1 of 1910; the South Africa School of Mines and Technology, Johannesburg, incorporated by Act No. 4 of 1910; and Natal University College, Pietermaritzburg, incorporated by Act No. 18 of 1909. Much excellent work has been done by these institutions with the somewhat inadequate means at their disposal, and Victoria College in particular has established a just reputation. But there is still room for the creation of a University which shall not be a mere examining body like the present University of the Cape, and the means for establishing such a University have been provided by the

munificence of the late Mr. Alfred Beit and Sir Julius Wernher, which has provided £500,000 as an endowment. Great difficulty has, however, hitherto been experienced in settling on a scheme which will meet the needs of the case, as regards compliance with the requirement of the South Africa Act for the equality of the English and Dutch languages and the relations of the new University to the existing colleges. Proposals to limit the teaching of the University as regards arts to post-graduate work, and to enforce the strict equality of both languages were found impracticable, and the principle of permitting the incorporation of the colleges appears to have won general acceptance, and was embodied in the Bill proposed by the Union Government in 1913, which, however, failed to become law, the matter being held over for further consideration.

The Education Department is also concerned through the Department of Agriculture with agricultural education. Reference will be made later to the efforts made to secure the proper grading and sorting of wool in the interests of the export trade by the Farmers' Associations, and the Government assists in the movement by arranging for expert demonstrations at various centres of production. Efforts are made in other directions to induce farmers to combine for the improvement alike of methods of production and of disposal of produce. The Agricultural Department is also charged with the duty of controlling animal diseases, the suppression of insect pests, the diseases of plants, viticulture, horticulture and allied subjects, and in these matters they work in co-operation with the Tropical Diseases Bureau and the Entomological Research Committee of the Imperial Government. Among other important work carried on by the Department are the investigation of agricultural conditions by means of experimental stations, the distribution of new varieties of seeds, and the issue of publications embodying the results of recent agricultural discoveries and giving advice.

Agricultural Education.

PART III. Agricultural colleges, fully equipped for their work, are established at Elsenburg in the Stellenbosch district, at Grootfontein, at Tweespruit in the Free State, at Cedara, near Pietermaritzburg and at Potchefstroom, while a Central Agricultural College will be provided at Pretoria.

Forestry. In forestry also the Department of Education is directly interested through the Conservator of Forests. The question of the economical working of the Crown forests has received careful consideration, and there are now over a million and a half acres reserved as Crown forests. The Union is divided into seven Conservancies, each under a Conservator, stationed at Cape Town, King William's Town, Knysna, Umtata, Pretoria, Pietermaritzburg, and Bloemfontein respectively, all the officers being subordinate to the Chief Conservator for the Union at Pretoria. The importance of the development of the woods of South Africa is adequately proved by the fact that over twelve million cubic feet of wood were imported in 1911, of which nearly ten million feet were pine imported mainly from Sweden, the United States, and in a less measure from Norway and Canada. The United States sent also considerable quantities of oak, walnut, and poplar, while Australia supplied a quarter of a million feet of jarrah and karri for railway purposes. In 1911 the expenditure on the forests totalled £112,815; and the revenue, including gratis issues of wood, was set down at £90,874. The felling of trees is regulated and replanting enforced, and heavy penalties placed on destruction of trees by fire, &c. Trees for plantation are supplied by the Government at cost price to the number of 300,000 a year, and there are Government plantations at Tokai, near Cape Town, Kluitjes Kraal, and Fort Cunyng-hame; in the Transvaal at Pan, Jessievale, and Ermelo; and in Natal at Cedara.

Geological Survey.

An important scientific and practical work is being carried out in the shape of the geological survey of the Union. That of the Cape was begun in 1906; the area mapped



covers all south of a line from Van Rhyn's Dorp to Humansdorp, and nearly the whole area north of the Orange River, including Bechuanaland, Griqualand West, and part of Gordinia. South of the Orange River the survey has been carried to De Aar and Carnarvon. The divisions of Aliwal North, Barkly East, Herschel, Xalanga, Elliot, Glen Grey, Kentani, Wodehouse, Queenstown, Uitenhage, Alexandria and Matatiele have been dealt with either in whole or in part. The survey of the Transvaal began in 1903, and more than a third of the Province has been mapped on a scale of 2.35 miles to the inch, including the mineral districts of Lydenburg and Pilgrim's Rest, the Waterberg tin fields, the Middelberg coal area, and the central part of the Province. The work has reached Komati Poort on the eastern border, and on the western border has linked on to that of the Cape geological commission. The Witwatersrand goldfield is being dealt with on a yet larger scale.¹

The language question has been of great importance in connexion with education. Fortunately, after considerable difficulty the following compromise between the extreme bilingual and the anti-bilingual views was arrived at, after the subject had been carefully considered by a select committee of the Parliament of the Union. The compromise, which is embodied in the Transvaal Provincial Ordinance No. 5 of 1911, Orange Free State Ordinance No. 7 of 1912, and Cape Ordinance No. 11 of 1912, provides that the medium of instruction of every pupil in all the standards of any public school up to and including the fourth standard shall be the home language of the pupil, provided that the parent of any pupil shall have the right to claim that the other language shall be gradually introduced and thereafter regularly used as a second medium of instruction in accordance with the intelligence of the pupil, in which case

*Language
in Educa-
tion.*

¹ Reports on the Surveys will be found in Parl. Papers, Cd. 3729-29; 4448-17; 4964-18; 5467-21.

PART III. instruction shall be provided for the pupil in accordance
—♦♦— with his parent's wish. If, in carrying this out, it appears that the majority of the pupils in any standard must be taught exclusively in one language, while there is a minority requiring teaching in another, then arrangements must be made for the efficient teaching of the minority by means of parallel classes if the organization of the school permits, by means of such classes in every case where the minority is not less than fifteen, and in cases not falling within these two categories by means of teachers qualified to instruct in both languages. In all the standards above the fourth, provision shall be made for the instruction of each pupil in both languages as media, and every parent may choose one of the languages as sole medium or both as media, and if he makes no choice the pupil shall be instructed through the language he knows best, with the other as a secondary medium. The system of public schools is therefore so to be reorganized that there shall be schools in which English is the prevailing medium, in which Dutch is the prevailing medium, and in which both are media for certain subjects. Where in any school there are a majority using one medium and a minority requiring instruction through another medium, then there must be provision for parallel classes if the arrangements permit or if the number of the minority is ten or over, and in other cases teachers qualified to instruct in both tongues must give the information. Every pupil in every standard of a public school up to and including the fourth shall be taught his home language, and adequate provision for the teaching of the other language shall be provided, and every pupil shall be taught it unless his parent otherwise desires, the decision of the parent being decisive as to what is the child's home language. In the higher standards there shall be adequate provision for teaching both tongues, and both shall be taught unless the parent of the pupil otherwise desires. Reasonable latitude in carrying out these clauses

is permitted for the first three years only after the provisions come into force. If the pupil's home language is neither English nor Dutch, then the Department shall make such provision as may be necessary to meet the educational needs of the case. The same principles are applied also to trade classes, normal colleges, and so forth, but in their case the choice is to be exercised by the pupil, not by his parent. Teachers are to be instructed in both languages and to be required to pass in both languages, but there are saving clauses for teachers already in the service of the Departments when the Ordinances come into force.

§ 5. NATIVE RACES

Details of the character and distribution of the various native races of the Union of South Africa can most conveniently be given under the several territories, but as the charge of the native races is expressly devolved upon the Union Government by the Union Act it will be convenient to summarize the main aspects of the actual management of the natives at the present day. No question has more seriously agitated the minds of the people of South Africa, as is inevitable in view of the fact that in the territories which are here dealt with, the total population in British South Africa of 8,192,642 given by the census of 1911 includes no more than 1,305,437 white people, and the rate of increase of the white population is rather less than that of the coloured and native population. The different Administrations in the past have treated the native questions in very different ways: the Cape started with the recognition of the political equality of white and coloured subjects alike, and only slowly evolved a practical differentiation between the native who was assimilated in culture to the European and the raw Kaffir who could not be included in any system of administration on European lines. The policy of Natal was markedly less generous, as a result

Government of Natives.

PART III. of the very small European population and the immediate proximity of the powerful Zulu tribes. The Transvaal and the Orange Free State in different degrees refused to accept the equality whether in political or social matters of black and white, and the policy of the British Government on the annexation of these territories was bound by the terms of the Peace of Vereeniging of May 31, 1902, not to concede the franchise to natives pending the introduction of self-government. From these diverse systems therefore it remains for the Union Government to build up a secure edifice. In this task they have the aid of several important reports of Commissions, including that of the South African Native Affairs Commission of 1903-5¹, of the Natal Native Affairs Commission of 1906-7², and the Cape Native Affairs Commission of 1910³.

Land-holding by Natives.

In the Cape natives occupy land either in locations or reserves set aside for their use, amounting to over 6,400,000 morgen, or in locations on private property, or as servants in continuous employment of land-owners, or as holders of individual titles in freehold or leasehold or under quit-rent tenure or in urban locations. The policy of the Government of the Colony aimed at the gradual education of the natives from the communal stage to the stage of individual ownership of land, and with this end in view from 1879 onwards, various attempts were made to establish individual holdings in a modified sense. The system eventually took form in the famous Glen Grey Act, No. 25 of 1894, which provided for the grant to individuals of allotments of land which were subject to perpetual quit-rent, were inalienable without the Governor's assent, were heritable by the native law of primogeniture subject to disherison for good cause, could not be subdivided or sublet, were subject to a perpetual quit-rent at the rate of fifteen shillings per five morgen allotment, the

¹ See Parl. Paper, Cd. 2399.

² Ibid., Cd. 3889.

³ Printed in the Cape Parl. Papers, G. 26, 1910.

average size, and were forfeitable for failure to pay quit-rent or survey expenses, rebellion, conviction of theft or non-beneficial occupation. There was, moreover, until 1913 no bar in the way of the acquisition of land on the ordinary tenures by any native, and many do so own land.

In Natal natives occupy land in locations vested in the Natal Native Trust, constituted in 1864 and modified by subsequent colonial legislation, covering over 1,044,080 morgen, in mission reserves vested in that trust for religious and educational purposes, on Crown lands, on private lands, and on special trusts created for European immigration, but not so utilized hitherto, or for educational purposes. In Zululand the greater portion of the land was vested in the Crown and occupied communally by natives, while in the Colony proper over a million morgen were reserved for their use. There was no restriction until 1913 on a native acquiring land on the same conditions as Europeans, and he is permitted under an Act of 1895 to bequeath land by will.¹ *In Natal.*

In the Transvaal natives occupy lands in locations or reserves set apart for native occupation, on land owned by natives, on other private lands, on Crown land, and in urban locations. Nearly 650,000 morgen have been set aside as locations for natives, while 260,000 more have been purchased by natives, and nearly all these lands are held in communal tenure. There is no general prohibition of landholding by natives, but they are not allowed to acquire rights in mining areas laid out since the passing of Act No. 35 of 1908, and their holding of land in townships is restricted by regulations under an Act (No. 34) of that year.² *In the Transvaal.*

In the Orange Free State the law forbade the purchase or lease of land by natives, but an exception was made in the case of certain Baralong, who were allowed to own land in *In the Orange Free State.*

¹ See Parl. Paper, Cd. 3889, pp. 19, 23. The Natal Native Trust is now represented by the Governor-General in Council of the Union.

² Ibid., Cd. 6087. No. 35 is amended by Union Act No. 18 of 1913.

PART III. the Thaba N'chu district: there were also reserves at Witzies Hoek, made in 1867 for a chief who desired the protection of the State, and at Thaba N'chu where some Baralongs were settled in 1884. Besides these cases, natives might occupy land as servants in continuous employment of land-owners, or as squatters and as labour tenants periodically employed, or in urban locations.¹ The Natives Land Act, 1913, of the Union introduces important changes in the law of land tenure. Large areas of land are scheduled as native areas, which are reserved for native occupation. In the rest of the land no native may acquire land from a non-native, or vice versa, pending the assignment of the land either as non-native or additional native areas, which will be effected by Parliament on the recommendation of a Commission of five members. It is proposed by the government that no native may then acquire any interest in a non-native area, save with the consent of the Governor-General in Council, and similarly a non-native may not acquire any interest in a native area, whether scheduled or additional, unless special authority is given by the Governor-General in Council for such acquisition for church, school, or trading purposes or for public purposes; if the area is a scheduled one, resolutions of both Houses of Parliament will be necessary.

The Governor-General in Council will be empowered to prescribe the conditions of land-holding in additional native areas, and also in scheduled areas where no other law already applies; to acquire lands occupied by native tribes and set them apart as additional areas, and to recover the purchase-money by imposing a tax not exceeding £1 a year on each adult male. The acquisition of land by natives in any part of the Union will be made at once unlawful if it is intended for occupation on a communal

¹ On the exact nature of this form of holding, see Keith, *Journal of the African Society*, vi. 202-8; xi. 324-31; Delafosse, *ibid.*, x. 258-73.

tenure. Power is to be given to the Governor-General in Council, with the approval of Parliament, to regulate the owning or occupation by natives of land in locations controlled by Municipal Councils, or town or village authorities. A saving clause in the Act allows natives to occupy non-native land under existing agreements until additional areas are set aside for their use, and it is provided that the Act shall not be in force in the Cape Province in so far as it would prevent any person from acquiring or holding a qualification for registration as a Parliamentary voter.

The native system of land tenure was communal, and the scheme of rule rested on the control of the head of the family over the family, of the headman over the kraals under him, and of the chief over the headmen and the whole tribe. An element of democracy was contained in the rule by which the head, whether father, headman, or chief, consulted with the chief at least of those under him. This system has throughout the Union already in greater or less degree been broken up by the influence of European government. In the Cape it was found gradually necessary to distinguish between the ordinary administration of the country and the government of the more distant tribes, and in the Transkeian Territories special rules were laid down empowering the Governor to legislate for them by proclamation, and providing that native disputes should be dealt with under native law as a matter of course. In the matter of inheritance the principle of accepting native law had to be given a wider scope by an Act of 1864, and the same principle was recognized in Kaffraria and more generally in British Bechuanaland. But, except in British Bechuanaland, the Cape did not permit the exercise of criminal jurisdiction by native chiefs.

*Adminis-
tration in
the Cape.*

In Natal the special circumstances of the small white population surrounded by large numbers of natives resulted in an attempt to separate native administration from the ordinary government of the Colony, the Governor being

In Natal.

PART III. instructed to exercise the powers which were vested in him as Paramount or Supreme Chief according to his own judgment after discussion with his Government. As a matter of fact, the Governor did not in practice exercise these powers, which related almost exclusively to matters of administration, independently. The native chiefs are still left with a considerable amount of civil and a limited criminal jurisdiction. The native law was also codified in 1891, defining the extent of the jurisdiction to be exercised. This code does not apply to Zululand, and further provision as to jurisdiction is included in the case both of Natal and of Zululand in Act No. 49 of 1898.¹ The extent of the civil jurisdiction thus exercised by native chiefs in the rest of the Province extends to all civil cases, divorces excepted, between members of their tribes, and they have a criminal jurisdiction so far as to punish by fine, not exceeding two pounds, for disobedience to orders or contempt arising out of civil proceedings or disobedience to orders of the chief given under direction of the Supreme Chief. In Zululand the civil jurisdiction extends to all cases where the defendant is a native of the chief's tribe, except in cases involving Christian marriages, and the criminal jurisdiction is a general one except in certain offences, while a chief can also fine up to two pounds for contempt or disobedience to an order of the Supreme Chief. From all decisions of native chiefs appeals lie to the magistrate of the Division. Superior again to the courts of the magistrates is the Native High Court with a civil jurisdiction in all native cases. No case can, however, be brought in the first instance before the Native High Court unless the amount at issue is at least £100 or the cause is a matrimonial one. In criminal matters its jurisdiction was confined to certain offences until 1910, when by Act No. 30 it was made generally applicable, but is still not exclusive of that of the magistrate. The court can either sit as the full

¹ See also Act No. 46 of 1898; 37 of 1901.

court, or one judge can exercise the jurisdiction subject to appeal to the full court, and the court can hear appeals from the decisions of magistrates' courts in native cases. Until 1910 no appeals lay from the decisions of the High Court to the Supreme Court of the Colony, except where a non-native had been permitted to intervene in a native case, but since the Union appeals lie to the Appellate Division, thus removing the anomaly which existed under the colonial régime until 1910, when cases occurred where both the High Court and the Supreme Court refused to exercise jurisdiction in a case affecting a coloured person on the ground that the case belonged to the other.

As a result of the Commission of 1906-7 which was appointed in connexion with the widespread disaffection in the natives revealed by the rebellion of 1906, an important Act No. 1 of 1909 introduced changes into the administration of native affairs. The colony was divided into four districts for purposes of native administration, each presided over by a native Commissioner. These officers were directly charged with securing obedience to the orders of the Supreme Chief and furthering the interest of the natives in non-judicial matters. The magistrates, while exercising executive functions, were also placed under the Department of Native Affairs, and were required to summon annually a council of the chiefs of the district to confer with the Commissioner. The Secretary for Native Affairs¹ was established as a permanent officer under the Minister for Native Affairs, and a Council for Native Affairs was created consisting of the Secretary, the four District Commissioners, and four unofficial members selected for five years by the Governor in Council for reasons of their knowledge of the natives. The functions of the Council were to be advisory, deliberative, and consultative, and they were required to review existing legislation affecting the

¹ Called Chief Native Commissioner since Union (see Act No. 1 of 1912).

PART III. natives and to advise as to any amendment necessary. The Council took its duties seriously, and Act No. 7 of 1910 passed on their motion altered the law of native marriage for the better, while another Act withdrew native criminal cases from the purview of juries by taking them out of the jurisdiction of the Supreme Court. The Act of 1909 emphasized the right of the Supreme Chief and his officers to receive the obedience of the chiefs, and in turn empowered them to enforce obedience by their tribesmen to the code of native law, increasing their powers for the purpose, and for the purpose of enforcing obedience to the orders of the Supreme Chief, up to a fine of £5.

By the Act of Union the powers of the Governor of Natal as Governor and as Supreme Chief are vested in the Governor-General in Council, but otherwise the situation remains unchanged, save that by Act No. 1 of 1912 the Minister for Native Affairs is substituted for the Natal Native Trust and the Zululand Native Trust as the controlling authority over the lands hitherto vested in those trusts for native purposes.

*Adminis-
tration
in the
Transvaal.*

In the Transvaal the State President, by Law No. 4 of 1885, was constituted Paramount Chief over all natives and chiefs in the Republic, and he was empowered with the advice and consent of the Executive Council to make regulations for the administration of the law. These powers passed to the Governor in Council of the Transvaal and now to the Governor-General in Council of the Union. As in the districts of the Cape other than the Transkei, so in the Transvaal jurisdiction over natives was entrusted to Resident Magistrates, and Resident or Special Justices of the Peace, both in civil and in criminal cases. Between natives the law to be enforced was to be native law where not incompatible with natural justice, and under this provision the native custom of 'lobola', the payment for a wife by her husband, has been held to be invalid by the Transvaal Courts.¹

¹ See *Kaba v. Ntela*, 1910, *Transvaal Supreme Court Reports*, 964,

By Proclamation No. 21 of 1902, a special native court for the Witwatersrand was created with a criminal and civil jurisdiction in native cases: in civil cases between natives, native law was to be applied, or in case of natives following different systems of law the law affecting the defendant. Although Law No. 4 of 1885 contemplated the exercise of jurisdiction by native chiefs, it does not appear that in practice this jurisdiction has been exercised.

In the Orange Free State no special powers as to natives were given to the President, or on annexation to the Governor, and the jurisdiction over natives in civil and criminal cases alike has been exercised by Resident Magistrates and Justices. But as regards natives special laws largely affected the exercise of that jurisdiction and procured some measure of recognition of native law, which as a whole and as such is not accorded any recognition in the State.

Throughout South Africa there has been a curious mixture of native and Roman-Dutch law. The Native Affairs Commission of 1903-5, and the Cape Commission of 1910, both reported in favour of recognizing the practice of lobola where it prevailed, the latter calling attention to the anomaly that the practice is recognized by the Courts of the Transkei by law and in practice by the magistrate at Tamacha, but not elsewhere in the Cape outside British Bechuanaland. This much abused custom is one by which a husband pays a certain deposit of cattle to his father-in-law, in return for the promise of the latter to accord him protection and assistance to his daughter after marriage. Desertion by the wife without cause of the husband is by native law a good ground for demanding the return of the deposit; and, where that cannot be legally enforced by law, fathers-in-law have been known to take advantage of their sons-in-law. Again in all

where it is shown that the same doctrine applies in the Cape generally. It is otherwise in Natal, Zululand, Southern Rhodesia, and Swaziland, Basutoland, and the Bechuanaland Protectorate.

PART III. the Provinces except Natal, and by a law in 1910 in British Bechuanaland, the rule is that Christian marriage carries with it the Roman-Dutch law of community of property between the spouses, while Natal has maintained the native system in regard to all marriages. A report of a committee of the Union Senate of May, 1913, favours the recognition of the civil effects of lobola, and the acceptance of the native law of intestate succession even in the case of Christian marriages.

The Definition of Native.

Further complications are involved in the concept 'native'. The term has had and still has various interpretations in South Africa. The Orange Free State includes in the term all coloured persons as well as aboriginal natives: the Natal Supreme Court and the Native High Court took diametrically opposed views as to whether a half-caste was a native or a European: the Transvaal for some purposes classed coloured persons with natives and for others excluded them: the Cape as a rule distinguished between them: the Native Affairs Commission of 1903-5 resolved that a great deal of racial intermixture had taken place, and that many of the coloured class had raised themselves to a high standard by their industry, intelligence, and self-respect, and finally determined to advise the classification as natives of all aboriginal inhabitants of South Africa south of the equator, and half-castes and their descendants by natives. It is, however, possible to a limited extent for a native to escape from the disadvantages attendant on his nationality. Since 1865 it has been possible in Natal for a native to be exempted from the operation of native law, though the conditions are onerous and seldom satisfied. Similarly in the Transvaal and the Orange River Colony provision was made by the British Government after annexation under which natives might in special cases be relieved of the necessity of complying with the pass laws. These laws, which differ from territory to territory, are deemed essential for the control of natives, but they naturally are regarded by educated natives as a serious indignity, and the

Native Affairs Commission of 1903-5 recommended improvements in the administration which have in great measure been carried out by the Union Act No. 15 of 1911.

The education of the native population remains a problem of great difficulty. The amount directly spent on native education is still almost negligible except in the Cape Province. The South Africa Native Affairs Commission, 1903-5, found that in 1903 the expenditure for native education amounted to £47,657 in the Cape, £7,265 in Natal, £1,800 in the Orange River Colony, and £5,000 in the Transvaal, and that the percentage of the native population actually receiving instruction was 4.24 in the Cape, 1.12 in Natal, 2.76 in the Orange River Colony, and 1.44 in the Transvaal. In the same year the direct taxation on the natives was estimated at £105,241, £162,193, £42,803, and £280,269 respectively. Education is practically left to Mission schools which receive a limited measure of aid from the State, and strength is laid on the desirability of securing that religious and moral training shall accompany literary education. Manual and technical training is only given to a limited extent: as the minority in their report of the South African Native Affairs Commission pointed out, the labour which is required from the native is in the main unskilled labour. The lack of educational facilities in South Africa has resulted to some extent in natives proceeding to the United States or to England for educational facilities, but much has been done for the training of native teachers by the institution of Lovedale in the Cape.

In one respect, however, the authorities have undoubtedly come near to agreement. The Native Affairs Commission of 1903-5 recognized after a most careful inquiry that the prohibition of the use of any liquor other than native beer was essential in the interest of the natives and of their employers, although the enforcement of complete prohibition has been hampered in the Cape by the interest of the local

Education.

The Liquor Traffic.

PART III. wine growers, who find in the native a mode of disposing of the inferior wine and brandy which South Africa largely produces.¹

*Native
Labour.*

The native forms the indispensable basis of work in South Africa. If on the one hand his presence has provided a large though not adequate supply of cheap unskilled labour, against that gain must be set the fact that the presence of the native in a lower state of civilization has effectively prevented the development of the country as a place where white men can work with their hands. South Africa is, therefore, a Colony which presents essentially features of an undemocratic character, a fact reflected in the utter weakness of the labour party in the country.² Alike in agriculture and pastoral pursuits and in mining the rougher and inferior work is allotted to the native, and the higher and better-paid kinds of employment are assigned to the white man. The grave disadvantages of the position make themselves more and more felt every year. The native naturally seeks to claim for himself some of the higher spheres of labour, and the Pax Britannica and the efforts of the Government to improve his sanitary surroundings, and to overthrow the tyranny of undesirable customs secure the rapid increase of the native population. Moreover, the existence of a large mixed coloured population in the Cape complicates the matter by emphatically disproving the theory that the black and white are two absolutely disparate races. On the other hand the growth of the white population is retarded, despite the sturdiness of the Boer farmer, by the fact that many of the mining population are merely visitors to South Africa, while immigration of agriculturists is hampered by the difficulty of securing their successful establishment, a difficulty amply shown by the vicissitudes of the settlements planted by Lord Milner after the war. Meanwhile native opinion is slowly gathering strength

¹ Cf. *Journal of the African Society*, viii. 56-8.

² Cf. *The Round Table*, iii. 385-90.

through political associations, which present with force the native aspect of political and social questions, and less satisfactorily on the religious side in the Ethiopian movement, which seeks to erect native churches freed from any form of European control or guidance.¹

Along with the control of native affairs the Union Act transfers to the Union Government the control of measures especially affecting Asiatics. The position of the Asiatic varies in each Province of the Union, and the legislation differentially affecting him takes either the form of measures aimed at excluding him from the Union or at restricting his action when in the Union. The laws of the Cape and of Natal adopted the principle of a dictation test, by means of which the Government might at will exclude any immigrant whose entry was not desired. That of the Orange Free State denied Asiatics entrance absolutely, and that of the Transvaal prevented the entry of any Asiatic who had not already acquired a domicile in the Province. In substitution for these the Union Government proposed in 1911 and 1912 to obtain the passing of an Immigration Bill, which would adopt the Cape and Natal models, and prevent the entry of all but a few selected Asiatics by a language test, while preserving intact the further restrictions in force in the Orange Free State which forbade an Asiatic owning land. This measure became law in 1913.² The situation is complicated by the large number of Asiatics, over 130,000, who have been introduced into Natal mainly as indentured immigrants, and who with their descendants now make up a larger element of the population of the Province than the white population. Their number is not now being increased by outside arrivals, since the Government of India has forbidden further recruiting on the ground that the treatment of domiciled Indians is not

The Position of Asiatics.

¹ On native policy in South Africa, see Evans, *Black and White in South-East Africa*, London, 1911, with Col. Rawson's criticism, *Journal of the African Society*, xi. 151-72.

² See Parl. Papers, Cd. 5579, 6283, and 6940.

PART III. altogether satisfactory, nor indeed would further recruiting be approved by the people of the Union. In Natal the chief complaint of the domiciled Indian is that the licensing of petty traders is entrusted to the municipal corporations which are elected by his rivals in trade, and the same power has been objected to in the case of the Cape and of the Transvaal in which it was entrusted to the Councils by Provincial Ordinance No. 9 of 1912. In the Transvaal protests have been made not only against the Immigration Act and the Registration Act of 1907, which requires registration of domiciled Indians, but also against the enforcement of the old law of 1885 of the South African Republic. This law, beside imposing a tax—now repealed—of £3 a head, forbids the holding of land in ownership, except in municipal locations, and compels Indians, on sanitary grounds, to reside though not to trade in locations. In the Transvaal also the question of Indians residing on areas in mining centres and in townships has been raised in connexion with Acts No. 34 and 35 of 1908, which have been referred to above in connexion with native land rights. The problem is indeed a difficult one, and one which must be dealt with by one authority: unlike the native proper, the Indian has no prescriptive right to be in South Africa, unlike him again he competes with the European storekeeper, and easily surpasses him in the art of petty trade. On the other hand public educated opinion in India has watched the situation with more and more earnest disapproval, and a member of the Governor-General's Council, Mr. Gokhale, visited the Union in 1912 in order if possible to secure a settlement which, in return for the acceptance by the Indian of virtual exclusion, would secure to those who are domiciled more equal treatment. This is in accordance with the principle enunciated by Lord Crewe at the Imperial Conference of 1911 and accepted by the representatives of the self-governing Dominions, that while it is the undoubted right of the self-governing Do-

minions to determine in what manner these communities shall be composed and therefore to restrict Indian immigration in what way they think fit, it is important that this should be done in a way compatible with the comity due to the Indian people, and that in all cases in which Indians are permitted to enter the Dominions or are domiciled therein due respect should be paid to their rights.

The native languages of South Africa still remain the subject of much dispute among philologists, as regards their connexion and origin. Roughly speaking, they may be divided into the Bantu and the Hottentot and the Bushman. The former is by far the most widely spread in accordance with the vast distribution of the Bantu people, and is divided into clearly distinguished groups, such as Zulu, Sesuto, the speech of the Basuto people, Sechuana, that of the Bechuanaland natives, and so on. The chief difference between the northern and southern dialects of the tongue is the use in the latter, including Zulu, Xosa, and South Basuto, of clicks, a feature which has been conjectured with some plausibility to testify to influence by the Hottentot and Bushman speeches which both use clicks.¹

*Native
Languages.*

The Hottentot language is decidedly dying out. It was spoken by the dwellers in the western part of the Cape, and coming as they did directly under the influence of the Dutch settlers, the result has been that the language fell into disuse, and is now confined to various outlying and wandering tribes. Unlike Bantu, it uses affixes rather than prefixes for the purpose of inflection, and it possesses many more clicks, possibly not primitive, but derived from Bushman.

The Bushman language falls below the Hottentot in euphony, as much as the Hottentot falls below the Bantu, for it adds to clicks what may be fairly described as grunts, which are said to bear a marked resemblance to the different cries of the baboon. The formation of the plural by redupli-

¹ Cf. Miss Werner, *Journal of the African Society*, xii. 128, 129.

PART III. cation is a sign of the primitive character of the tongue, as well as its very restricted scheme of numerals. It is, however, at least possible that the Bushman and Hottentot languages have a common origin, but that question, as well as the question of the origin and affinities of the Bushmen, the Hottentots, and the Bantus is too obscure for consideration here.¹ Some mention should, however, be made of the Bushman paintings, which are of some artistic value and of great interest.² The folk-lore has been elaborately investigated by the late Dr. Bleek and Miss Lloyd.³

¹ Miss Werner, *Journal of the African Society*, xii. 120-35, thinks that Hottentot (Nama and Kora) is a Hamitic tongue i.e. belonging to the same group as Berber, Somali, Galla, Masai, possibly Fula and Hausa) that Bushman is a variety of the Sudanic speech, and that Bantu represents a fusion of these tongues. Meinhof (see *Journal of the African Society*, xii. 183, 442, 443) has, however, abandoned the fusion theory, and regards Bantu as a distinct speech. See also Meinhof, *Die moderne Sprachforschung in Afrika* [1910] and *Die Sprachen der Hamiten* [1912], and Crabtree, *Journal of the African Society*, xii. 177-89; Sir H. Johnston, *Journal of the African Society*, vi. 329-40; Westermann, *Die Sudansprachen*, Hamburg, 1911.

² See Miss Werner, *Journal of the African Society*, vii. 387-93.

³ *Bushman Folklore*, London, 1911.

CHAPTER II

THE UNION OF SOUTH AFRICA—FINANCE, COMMUNICATIONS, CUSTOMS, AND TRADE

§ 1. PUBLIC FINANCE

THE last period of the separate keeping of accounts of revenue and expenditure terminated on May 30, 1910, and since that date the revenue and expenditure of the Union as a whole have alone been recorded. The figures of the several Provinces up to the date of Union, with details of the revenue and expenditure, can most conveniently be given under each Province, but it is desirable to summarize here the financial position of the Union. For the period of ten months from June, 1910, to March 31, 1911, April 1 being the beginning of the South African financial year, the revenue was £14,448,140 and the expenditure £13,598,627; for the year 1911-12 the revenue was £17,330,782, and the expenditure £16,636,467, while for 1912-13 the figures for revenue and expenditure were estimated at £16,288,000 and £17,129,841. The revenue is collected under a very large number of different heads, as the old taxation of the Colonies is still in force, and has only as yet been amalgamated in a few matters such as mineral rights, which are dealt with by Union Act No. 6 of 1910. The sources of income include customs and excise duties, transfer duty, succession duty and caution duty, licences, stamps, income tax in the Cape, poll tax in Natal—at present not levied—and the Free State, native taxation, mining revenue, posts, telegraphs, and telephones, fines and forfeitures, and various miscellaneous sources of

CH. II.

—♦—
Revenue.

PART III. revenue. The expenditure is equally miscellaneous; in 1912-13 for the expense of the Department of Agriculture, £490,097 was provided; for agricultural education, £112,985; for forestry, £123,101; for public health, £110,478; for leper and lunatic asylums, £262,911; for defence, £540,699, including the contribution of £85,000 to the Imperial Navy, made formerly by the Cape and Natal; for police, £1,419,483; for the Department of Mines, £288,278, including £100,000 contribution towards the fund for providing pensions for sufferers from miner's phthisis; for higher education, £123,942; for native affairs, £305,785; for the construction of public works, £477,468; for posts and telegraphs, £1,539,322. In addition to these sums, £4,667,337 was expended in interest, management, and redemption charges in respect of the public debt of the Union, and £3,423,185 was granted for the emoluments of Provincial Administrators and Auditors, and for the expenses of Provincial administration. The sums thus voted for administration were granted to the Provinces in the following proportions: to the Cape, £950,500; to Natal, £538,000; to the Transvaal, £1,392,900; and to the Free State, £529,500. In addition, Pietermaritzburg received as compensation for its loss of status on Union £23,380, and Bloemfontein, £19,113.

Public Debt. At the date of Union the debts of the several Colonies fell to be borne by the Union: the total were for the Cape, £52,566,034, of which £30,884,252 represented railway expenditure, £5,967,275 harbour expenditure; Natal owed £22,686,594, of which £14,178,154 was ascribed to railways, and £3,595,445 to harbours. The Transvaal owed £32,317,591, of which £15,618,447 was due in respect of railways, the Orange River Colony had a debt of £8,932,708, of which railways accounted for £4,991,118. The total debt was, therefore, £116,502,628, of which railways accounted for £65,671,973 and harbours for £9,562,720; £10,159,378 was set down as war and defence expenditure, and £4,434,195

as expenditure on agriculture, while £3,995,408 represented public works and buildings. CH. II.

The currency of the Union is regulated, along with that of Basutoland, by an Order in Council of January 23, 1911, which was proclaimed in the Union on May 8, 1911. The Order is made in virtue of the powers conferred on the Crown by the Imperial Coinage Act, 1870, as amended by the Imperial Act of 1891, and it provides that in the Union and Basutoland, British gold shall be legal tender for an unlimited amount; silver up to forty shillings, and bronze coins up to a shilling; the Order also makes legal tender on the same conditions the coins issued by the Pretoria Mint in virtue of the Law No. 14 of 1891 of the South African Republic, and prescribes in the case of British coins and of Transvaal gold coins that the weights specified in the Acts shall be the legal weights, below which the coins must not fall so long as they remain current. The Order expressly does not interfere with the validity of any established paper currency, and notes of authorized local banks are admitted in values of 10s., £1, £5, £10, £20, and £50, being issued to the banks by the Government against the deposit of an equivalent in Cape stock. Copper coins have been introduced of late with the view of cheapening the price of small commodities in the Transvaal; they have always been in use in the coast districts.

English weights are in general use, but Dutch measures for land and bulk generally prevail. In bulk a leaguer is equivalent to 152 Dutch gallons, or $126\frac{1}{2}$ English gallons; 1 pipe is 110 Dutch, $91\frac{1}{2}$ English gallons; 1 aum is 38 Dutch, $31\frac{2}{3}$ English gallons; and 1 anker is $9\frac{1}{2}$ Dutch, $7\frac{1}{2}$ English gallons. $91\frac{3}{4}$ Dutch lb. equal 100 English lb.; a muid, the common dry measure, is 3 bushels, or 24 gallons or 96 quarts. The standard diamond measure is the carat of four grains, 120 carats being 1 oz. Troy. The Cape foot is 1.033 English feet, and the Cape morgen, the unit of square measure,

*Weights
and
Measures.*

PART III. is 2·11654 English acres. In practice, however, in the country
 —♦— distances are invariably given in hours not in miles, and an hour represents the distance which can be ridden in that time or normally over six miles. The old-fashioned method of selecting a farm in a fresh area was to ride a square for half an hour in each way, the distance covered being rather more than twelve miles, enclosing a square of about ten miles in size or about three hundred morgen.

Time. Since 1903 South Africa has had standard time, namely that of 30° or two hours east of Greenwich. At Cape Town, therefore, the clock is 46 minutes ahead of the sun, and the extreme westerly point of the Union is 55 minutes ahead. The twenty-fifth degree would be more exact, making the Cape 26 minutes fast, and Durban 24 minutes slow. Noon in South Africa corresponds with 10 a.m. in London, 5.15 at Quebec, and 3.53 p.m. at Calcutta.

§ 2. COMMUNICATIONS

Steamship Services. South Africa is well supplied with steamship communication with the United Kingdom. The mail service has long been entrusted to the Union Castle Mail Steamship Company, which completes the journey of some 5,866 miles in sixteen days, and the mail steamers proceed from Table Bay to Port Elizabeth, East London, and Natal, the journey taking two days to Port Elizabeth, three to East London, and four or five to Natal. The mail steamers call at Madeira, there is a service once a month to St. Helena and Ascension performed by the intermediate steamers of the Company, and extra services to the other Cape ports and Natal and to Mossel Bay. Communication with the Australasian Colonies is supplied by the steamers of the Shaw, Savill, and Albion Company, the Aberdeen Line, the New Zealand Shipping Company, the Blue Anchor Line, the White Star Line, and the German Australian Steamship Company. There is also

communication once or twice a month with Mauritius and the ports of the east coast of Africa, Inhambane, Chiloane, Beira, Mozambique, Ibo, &c., and from Natal by steamers of the Union Mail Company with England via East Africa and the Suez Canal. There is also direct communication at intervals of ten or twelve days with India; and Ballard, King and Co. and F. T. Rennie, Son and Co. run direct services to Durban, the journey occupying about twenty-six days.

Inland communication is provided by an elaborate system *Railways.* of railways embracing the system of the Cape Government Railways, the Natal Government Railways, and the Central South African Railways, the title under which the railways of the Transvaal and of the Orange River Colony were administered after the annexation of the South African Republic and the Orange Free State to the crown. The combination under one management of these lines, which was the result of Union, has completed the beginning of corporate action and terminated for good the conflicting ideals of railway development which animated the Administrations of the several Colonies before the Union. The railways start from all four of the great ports, Cape Town, Port Elizabeth, East London, and Durban. The royal mail route to the diamond fields starts from Cape Town, reaches Kimberley, 647 miles distant, and runs thence to Mafeking, 870 miles, and to Bulawayo in Rhodesia, 1,362 miles. At De Aar it joins the line from Naauwpoort on the Port Elizabeth main line, and at Fourteen Streams a line branches off to Eastleigh Junction and Johannesburg. From Port Elizabeth two lines run, meeting at Rosmead Junction south of Naauwpoort; the eastern turns north at Alicedale, from which a branch runs east to Grahamstown, a distance of 106 miles from Port Elizabeth, and thence a private line runs 43 miles south-east to Port Alfred; the western proceeds via Klipplaat, from which a line runs to Oudtshoorn, 277 miles from Port Elizabeth. The Orange River is crossed at

PART III. Norvals Pont, and thence the line proceeds to Johannesburg, 712 miles, and Pretoria 740 miles, from Port Elizabeth. At Springfontein, 362 miles, in the Orange Free State it is joined by the line from East London, the shortest route to both Johannesburg and Pretoria, the distances being only 665 and 692 miles, while those for the route from Cape Town by Kimberley are 957 and 1001, and for the route by Bloemfontein 1,011 and 1,040 miles. The lines from East London and Port Elizabeth are connected also by lines running across country from Stormberg Junction to Rosmead Junction, and from Blaney Junction via King William's Town to Cookhouse, where there is a branch to Somerset East. On the eastern side of the East London main line important branches run to Butterworth, Maclear, Aliwal North, and Lady Grey.

Natal and Orange Free State. From Durban one line follows the coast north and then penetrates Zululand, ending at Somkele, 167 miles from the starting-point. Another runs south to Port Shepstone, 79 miles, from which port a light line, 2 feet gauge, runs to the Murchison flats. The main railway line runs to Ladysmith, 189 miles, where it divides into two branches. The one proceeds north, and reaches Germiston, Johannesburg, 482 miles, and Pretoria, 510 miles: the other runs to Bloemfontein, 503 miles, via Bethlehem and Thaba N'chu, while from Bethlehem a line runs to Kroonstad on the direct route from Bloemfontein to Germiston. A branch from Thaba N'chu connects Maseru, the capital of Basutoland, with the main systems of the Union railways, and Pietermaritzburg is connected by a line of 65 miles in length with Greytown. Of the chief towns of Natal, Pietermaritzburg is 71 miles from Durban, Dundee 236, and Newcastle 268. From Glencoe Junction, 231 miles from Durban, *Transvaal.* a branch line runs through Dundee to Vryheid, formerly capital of the New Republic, and to Hlobane, 76 miles, and is being extended. From Pretoria there is railway connexion with



Rustenburg, 61 miles, on the west, with Pietersburg, 177 miles, to the north, and through Komati Poort, 291 miles, with the Portuguese town of Lorenzo Marques on Delagoa Bay. There is a branch from Komati Poort to Tzaneen via Leydsdorp; Barberton is reached by another branch starting from Kaapmuiden, while Johannesburg is connected through Krugersdorp with Zeerust, and a line runs from Germiston to Breyten, whence there is connexion with Machadodorp on the Delagoa line, and through Ermelo with Piet Retief on the south. A branch of 65 miles connects Lydenburg with Belfast on the Delagoa line.

The proximity of Pretoria and Johannesburg to Lorenzo Marques is of course a matter of first-class importance in connexion with the railway position in South Africa. One of the chief motives leading to union was the rivalry of the Cape and Natal lines to obtain traffic with the Rand, and the pressure which the Transvaal could bring to bear by means of its power of fixing railway rates within its territory so as to favour one Colony or the other. The natural tendency of the Transvaal, as a British possession, to favour the colonial lines at the expense of the Lorenzo Marques line was counterbalanced by the importance to the mining industry of securing an adequate supply of labour from the Portuguese possessions in South Africa, and Lord Milner found it necessary as early as 1901 to conclude with the Governor-General of Mozambique an agreement on this head which contemplated the maintenance to that province of the advantages which it enjoyed in matters of railway rates prior to the outbreak of the war of 1899-1902. In 1909, by an agreement of February 2, a new agreement was made between the Colonies of the Transvaal, the Cape and Natal, and in virtue of this agreement, and a fresh arrangement made by the Governor of the Transvaal and the Governor-General of Mozambique, it has been provided that normally the rates shall be so adjusted that not less than

*Railway
Rates.*

PART III. fifty or more than fifty-five per cent. of the traffic of the Rand passes through Lorenzo Marques, thirty per cent. through Durban, and the remaining twenty per cent. through the ports of the Cape.

*Railway
Develop-
ment.*

The years which followed the war were active years of railway expansion: Lord Milner inaugurated an elaborate system of railway construction in the Transvaal, and the use of borrowed money gave a great impetus to the development of new lines. Since then development has been more steady, if less rapid, and by the end of 1910 the length of open lines in the four Provinces was 7,041 $\frac{1}{4}$ miles owned by the Government, 545 miles owned by private companies, while 859 miles were under construction. The gross receipts for the year 1910 amounted to £12,056,871, as compared with £10,157,271 for the preceding year: the ordinary working expenses exclusive of renewals amounted to £5,857,250, as compared with £4,958,066, or, including renewals, the totals were £6,597,511 as against £5,411,915. In 1911 the figures were 7,545 miles of Government lines open, 653 private lines, and 901 under construction for Government. The capital expenditure on the Government lines was £63,797,000 for works and £14,101,000 for rolling stocks. The gross earnings were £12,163,841, with a net profit of £2,509,662 after allowance for interest. A large reduction is being made in railway rates, about £1,335,000 being sacrificed in revenue with the aim of securing development. The gauge adopted is the 3 feet 6 inch, 7,104 miles being in that gauge. The rest of the lines is on the 2 feet gauge.

Harbours.

For the reception of the large number of steamers which frequent South African ports a good deal has been done. The accommodation at Table Bay includes an outer harbour, formed in part by a breakwater 3,640 feet long and a south arm running parallel with it, enclosing an area of 67 acres, and an inner basin, making a total area of 75 $\frac{1}{2}$ acres: the depth varies from 20 to 35 feet at low water and the berthage

is about $2\frac{1}{4}$ miles. There is a graving-dock of 500 feet capacity on the keel blocks, with a depth of $24\frac{1}{2}$ feet over the sill at entrance at high water on spring tides, and a slip is available for vessels up to 500 tons. At Port Elizabeth two jetties each 1,160 feet long have been provided and a third 1,460 feet long, and there is also an explosives jetty, capable of landing 150 tons a day, which is placed at a distance of 1,380 feet from the shore with an aerial ropeway connexion. The port at East London is placed at the mouth of the Buffalo River, and the entrance is protected by a solid breakwater and training walls. The area of the dock is over 100 acres, and vessels drawing up to 24 feet and over 8,000 tons gross register can enter the river and discharge their cargo alongside the wharves. Vessels up to 1,000 tons may be repaired on the patent slip. The harbour at Durban is of exceptional excellence: it is formed by a landlocked bay extending about $3\frac{1}{2}$ miles east and west and nearly 2 miles north and south, approached through a channel 4,000 feet in length formed by a pier on the north and a breakwater on the south, distant about 800 feet throughout except at the pier-heads where the distance is only 600 feet. The average low-water depth at the entrance is 33 feet and in the channel 30 feet; of the bay about a ninth is deep water available for shipping, with a low-water depth of not less than 30 feet over the larger part. There are two and a half miles of wharves with a depth of from 23 to $38\frac{1}{2}$ feet.

Shipping is mainly British: in 1911 the tonnage at Cape *Shipping*. Town was 4,797,830 British as against 880,722 foreign; at Port Elizabeth the figures were 2,773,086 and 519,106; at East London, 2,551,169 and 447,371; at Durban, 5,619,399 and 1,085,159; at Mossel Bay, 1,387,385 and 98,344; at Port Nolloth, 71,175 and 101,767; at Simon's Town, 86,304 and nil; and at Knysna, 16,878 and 1,240.

§ 3. CUSTOMS

PART III.

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*The
 Customs
 Union.*

*Arrange-
 ments since
 Union.*

While the Transvaal and the Orange River Colony were under the direct control of the Imperial Government, Lord Milner succeeded in procuring the conclusion of a Customs Union between the four Colonies which later entered the Union, Rhodesia and the territories under the administration of the High Commissioner for South Africa. This result was in the main due to the dominant position then held by the Transvaal as an economic factor in South Africa, and the same cause sufficed to produce a modification and renewal of the arrangement in 1906. But the interests of the Transvaal with its large mining population, and those of the Cape and Natal with their agricultural population were evidently bound to come into conflict; the mining industry was anxious above all things to secure food and other articles of consumption at the lowest prices, while the Cape was naturally desirous of protecting its farming population, and could lay stress on the importance of securing the prosperity of agriculture as forming a sounder basis of prosperity than a mere floating mining population. By 1908 the different interests of the two parties in the matter of customs and of railway rates showed that no possibility of agreement could be reached, except by the union or federation of the Provinces, and the decisive step of union stereotyped the free trade which had virtually existed among the several Colonies. Pending the passing of a new uniform tariff, the old legislation of the Colonies remains in force, but a change has been made in the relations of the Colonies, now Provinces, to the other members of the Customs Union. Prior to the coming into operation of the South Africa Act the four Colonies gave notice to the Administrations of Southern and North-Western Rhodesia of their intention to retire from the South African Customs Union Convention under the terms of Article XXII of that Conven-

tion, and subsequently, on the coming into effect of the Union of South Africa an agreement was concluded with these Administrations to continue all the essential features of the Convention. The agreement provides for the free interchange of the produce and manufactures of the Provinces of the Union, and the territories of the Rhodesias, excepting spirits and beer, upon which duties not exceeding certain maxima are imposed. The Government of the Union and the Administrations of the Rhodesias reciprocally engage to collect and pay over to each other the duties imposed by the Convention tariff on goods intended for consumption in the territories or the Union respectively, subject to the payment of five per cent. to cover the cost of collection, and to pay to each other 95 per cent. of the duty collected on imported materials, which are contained to an appreciable extent in the manufactures of either party entered for removal to the territories or the Union. The agreement runs from year to year from June 30, subject to denunciation on three months' notice, but if either party amend its tariff, or violates the agreement in spirit or intention, the other party may retire forthwith.

Similarly an agreement has been made between the Government of the Union and the High Commissioner acting on behalf of the territories of the Bechuanaland Protectorate, Basutoland, and Swaziland. The agreement is in the main identical with that made with the Rhodesias, but in place of the levying of a collecting charge of five per cent., and the payment to each other of ninety-five per cent. of duties collected on imported materials, the principle laid down in the schedule to the Union Act for the case when the territories shall be handed over to the Union Government to administer is adopted, and the Union Treasury pays quarterly a sum in respect of the duties, which bears to the total customs revenue of the Union in each year the same proportion as the average amount of the customs revenue of the territories for the three completed fiscal years last preceding the taking effect of the

The Agreement with the Territories.

PART III. Union Act, to the average total customs revenue of the
 —♦— Union for those years.

*The Agree-
ment with
Mozambi-
bique.* The Province of the Transvaal is in a peculiar position in view of its relations with Mozambique, and it therefore still admits duty free all the products of that Province save spirits, but these goods are all subject to the ordinary Union duties if imported into any other Province of the Transvaal, into the Rhodesias, or into the Bechuanaland Protectorate, Basutoland, or Swaziland.

*Excise
Duties.* Pending legislation as to excise duties, the existing excise duties in each Province were levied, and a corresponding customs duty was imposed on Union distilled spirits imported into any Province other than that of manufacture. By Act No. 37 of 1913 of the Union, provision is made for uniform excise duties. An excise by means of stamps is levied on cigarettes manufactured in the Union or in the Bechuanaland Protectorate, Basutoland, or Swaziland, when entered for consumption in the Union or those territories, and an equivalent surtax is levied on imported cigarettes.

*British
Preference.* The Union still maintains the British preference, and it affords also a similar rebate to British Colonies, Protectorates and possessions which grant reciprocal advantages to goods the product or manufactures of South Africa. The preference takes the form of rebates of about three per cent. on the average on large classes of goods, and has unquestionably proved of considerable value to British trade with South Africa; it has also facilitated arrangements for special trade privileges being extended to South Africa by both the Commonwealth of Australia and New Zealand, but the principle of preference has not gone unchallenged and the question of its repeal has been from time to time mooted in South Africa, especially since the question of the contribution to be made by South Africa to the defence of the Empire has become a matter of first-class importance in South African politics. It has been argued that the preference was only

proper when the local Government were indebted to the United Kingdom, not merely, as they still are, for the defence of their seaborne trade and for protection from invasion, but also for their effective defence against internal disturbances, but that the obligation is less pressing when the creation of an effective military force in the Union itself will reduce Imperial military responsibilities for the Union to a minimum, and when the problem of taking part in naval defence is about to receive serious consideration. Canada, Australia, and New Zealand receive preferential treatment.

§ 4. TRADE

Great impetus has been given to the trade of South Africa since the formation of the Union, and the progress shown in the last few years fully bears out the prognostications of Mr. H. Birchenough in his report in 1903 to the Board of Trade, by whom he had been commissioned to report on the state of British trade in South Africa. Mr. Birchenough then laid stress on the great future possibilities of development of South African trade due to the development of the mining industries, gold, coal, iron, and diamonds, railway extension, Government expenditure on docks and harbours, irrigation works, public buildings, municipal outlay on sanitation, water supply, electric lighting and traction, the extension of agriculture, the creation of new industries, the growth of population and similar causes. At that time he found that competition was very keen in certain branches of trade, especially in mining and electrical engineering, and was likely to become more formidable as the future extent and importance of the market were realized. The most serious rivals of Great Britain in the competition for South African trade were America and Germany, with Belgium and Switzerland in the second rank. American competition concentrated itself in a few well-defined branches of trade, such as agricultural

*Expansion
of Trade.*

PART III. implements and appliances, agricultural machinery, electrical machinery, tools, furniture and articles into whose composition wood largely entered. Germany, on the other hand, competed seriously in electrical machinery, fencing wire, textiles and cheap goods for the Kaffir trade, and was interested in most other lines of trade. Belgium competed chiefly in steel and iron work, glass and glassware, candles and blankets; Switzerland in electrical machinery and high-class stationary engines. American competition was materially aided by the low rates at which competing British steamship lines carried American freights from New York as compared with the freights from British ports to the same destination. German competition was to some extent aided by low freights for goods carried on sailing vessels, but mainly by the grant of low rates on the State railways in the case of goods intended for export, which constituted practically a bounty on export, and often explained the difference in price between English and German goods. Mr. Birchenough investigated the complaints of the injury done to trade by the monopoly of the steamship lines forming the South African Shipping Conference, but he considered that this monopoly had been less injurious to trade than the practice of carrying goods from America at all but nominal rates.¹

*Shipping
Rings.*

*Royal Com-
mission.*

*The
Majority
Report.*

The question of shipping rings was, however, regarded very seriously in South Africa, and in 1906, in large measure as a result of the feeling in that country and also in Australia on the question, a Royal Commission was set up to inquire into the question. The Commission reported in 1909, after taking evidence by means of a sub-commission in South Africa, and the majority of the Commissioners were not prepared for drastic measures. They declined to recommend either the abolition of deferred rebates by legislation or interference with the conditions on which such rebates were granted, nor could they see their way to propose the establish-

¹ See Parl. Paper, Cd. 1844.

ment of a Board of Control as suggested by some of the South African witnesses. They thought it undesirable that the Government should bring pressure to bear on the Conference lines in connexion with the mail services or Government cargo; they held that the disadvantages of the rebate system could be remedied by combination on the part of the shippers, and they suggested the reconstitution of the South African Merchants' Committee in London so as to make it more representative. They recommended that importers and exporters in South Africa should form themselves into a similar association to co-operate with the London Association, and that the Agents-General of the Colonies should take part in the negotiations with the Conference lines, together with the Merchants' Association, so as to safeguard the interest of manufacturers, consumers, and producers alike. They recommended that the Board of Trade should be given a limited power to order inquiries into cases where it was alleged that the action of a Shipping Conference was checking trade or permanently diverting the course of trade, but they did not consider that the Board should have power to do more than publish the report with a view to influence public opinion. They thought, however, that the Board should be entitled to receive full particulars, not for publication, of all rebate agreements, and that the tariffs of those lines which used the system should be published.

While the report of the majority was based on the theory that the system of referred rebates was legitimate if not abused, as permitting of regular sailings by well-equipped steamers, the minority held that the system was a public, national, and imperial danger. While not prepared to suggest legislation in the first instance, they desired to give the Board of Trade a full discretion as to ordering inquiries into any cases of rebates, the results of which must be published, and they desired that an annual report on Conferences should be made to Parliament, while the Board was to spare

*The
Minority
Report.*

PART III. no effort to secure better terms for shippers by using its influence in favour of conciliation.¹

The Attitude of the Union Government at the Imperial Conference.

The majority report of the Commission was not accepted as satisfactory in South Africa, but it was clear that action could not be effective so long as the colonies were separate entities. When, however, the Union of South Africa came into being, it was made clear that the Government were determined to terminate the rebate system. The question was discussed at the Imperial Conference of 1911², when the system was condemned out and out by the representative of the Union Government. On the other hand it was pointed out both by the Board of Trade, and on behalf of New Zealand by Sir Joseph Ward, that the rebate system could be defended on strong grounds, and that it was not in itself necessarily injurious. The Conference therefore only agreed to a resolution in favour of discouraging combinations and combines in so far as they were injurious to trade. The Board of Trade then explained that the fact that no action had been taken on the Report of the Royal Commission was simply due to the fact that the merchants had not asked nor had they even been willing that the recommendations of the Commission, so far as they required action to be taken by the Board of Trade, should be carried into effect.

The Settlement of 1912.

The Government of the Union dealt with the matter in the first session of the first Parliament of the Union by a special Act, dealing with the administration of the Post Office and the discouragement of shipping combinations. It was expressly provided that the Governor-General should not enter into any contract for the carriage of ocean mails with any person, who was connected with a shipping or other combination deemed to affect adversely South African trade or industries, or who adopted the system of deferred rebates. The Governor-General was also empowered to make regulations differentiating, as regards dock, wharfage, transshipping, or

¹ See Parl. Paper, Cd. 4668.

² See Parl. Paper, Cd. 5745.

other dues at Union ports, and as regards railway freights on Government lines, against goods which were transported by ships owned or chartered by persons with whom he might not contract. The Act rendered it impossible for the Government of South Africa to renew the contract with the Union Mail Company which was then in force, and on the other hand the Company under its then managers were unwilling to alter the system of rebates which it enforced. After some delay and a period of anxiety, the question was solved by the retirement of the then agents from the management of the line and its transfer to the control of the Royal Mail Steamship Company, a new contract being negotiated by Sir Owen Philipps, under which fixed rates of freights were agreed upon for a definite period. The rebate question, so far as it affects South Africa, is therefore for the time being removed from the field of important questions.

The export trade of South Africa, including British South Africa, the Territories except the eastern part of Northern Rhodesia, and the Protectorates, has increased rapidly since the appearance of Mr. Birchenough's report. In 1907 the total exports of South African produce amounted to £47,595,665, exclusive of re-exports valued at £637,938, and specie valued at £158,755. In 1910 the figures were £54,509,270, £808,008, and £111,963 respectively; in 1911 £57,734,875, £1,089,442, and £93,077. The increase in the quinquennium, 1907-11, was therefore no less than 21.3 per cent. The export is overwhelmingly directed to the United Kingdom. In 1907 it took 94.79 per cent. of the trade; in 1910, 91.74; and in 1911, 92.33. The exports to other British possessions, though negligible, have increased from .12 per cent. in 1907 to .25 in 1911. All foreign countries took only 3.95 per cent. in 1907, 6.37 in 1910, and 5.59 in 1911, the rest, 1.83, being exported as ships' stores. Only to Germany, Belgium, and the United States did the total exports exceed £500,000 in 1911, Germany taking

Exports.

PART III. £1,577,056, as against £1,814,033 in 1910 and £1,142,048 in 1907.

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*Gold and
Diamonds.*

The chief source of the wealth of the country lies in the gold mining and diamond mining industries, the former of which in 1911 accounted for 65.28 per cent. of the total exports and the latter for 14.36 per cent. In that year the output of raw gold amounted to £37,608,421, an increase of £3,286,285 over the previous year. It is, however, of importance to note that the recovery value worked out at only 27s. 11d. a ton as compared with 28s. 6d. in 1910, while working expenses increased to 18s. from 17s. 7d. The value of the diamonds exported fell in 1911 by £197,996, but this was due to the restrictive policy adopted by the owners with a view to preventing the decrease in the value of their output, a plan which proved successful, the price rising from an average of 30s. 4d. to 35s. 4d. a carat.

Coal.

The value of the coal exported reached £1,070,007 in 1911, an increase of £92,846 on the previous year. The chief feature of the trade is the steady increase of the sale of bunker coal at Cape Town, which diverts part of the trade from Madeira and Las Palmas, and enables the ships engaged in the trade from the United Kingdom to Australia via the Cape to carry larger quantities of paying cargo. The coal exported is practically all Natal coal, and new markets for its use are hoped for at Bombay, Karachi, Ceylon, Madras, Singapore, the Straits, Mauritius, Zanzibar, and South America. The Port of Durban is already well supplied with means of dealing with a large coal trade, and further facilities are being provided with a view to the expansion of the trade.

*Other
Metals.*

Of other metals copper ore, regulus and smelted copper were exported to the value of £615,853, and chrome ore to the value of £118,064, an increase of over £100,000 in the latter case since 1907. Tin ore represented £370,148 in value, an increase of about £10,000 from 1907. Asbestos

declined slightly to £27,978 as compared with the previous year, but in 1907 the export was only £7,909. CH. II.

Of agricultural produce the most important place is held by wool, the value of the export in 1911 being £3,900,142, as compared with £3,128,957 in 1907. The industry is assured of success, and efforts are being made to improve the selling price by the improvement of sorting, and classification by Farmers' Associations. Next in importance is the export of ostrich feathers, valued at £2,253,140 in 1911, a decrease of £19,000 from the previous year, but over £438,000 in excess of the figures for 1907. The diminution in value was, however, not due to any decrease in the quantity exported, which increased by 11.5 per cent., but to lower prices. The spread of irrigation and the cultivation of lucerne have converted the industry into one of great security and profit. Mohair increased slightly in value to £917,874, but in 1907 it stood at £965,687, and it is clear that the demand is now fully met by the supply. Wattle bark is growing into an important export, the value reaching £289,556, an increase of over 107 per cent. since 1907. Its growth is hampered mainly by absence of cheap labour, which induced in 1911 several growers to leave the trees unstripped, and by the decline of prices in the European market, thanks to increase in the supplies of other classes of tanning materials. The main port of destination of export in this case is Hamburg, and the conditions there imposed by the combination of buyers have proved sufficiently irksome to induce the Natal growers to form themselves into a shippers' association to protect the interest of growers and to secure better prices.

The export of maize, which reached in 1910 the high figure of £704,876, declined to £419,531, partly because of drought, and partly for the satisfactory reason that more maize is being consumed locally as fodder. The export of hides and skins was fairly steady at £1,216,566, and a new industry has sprung up since 1907 in the shape of the ex-

PART III. port of whale oil and residues, reaching in 1911 a total value of £117,342, as compared with £2,500 in 1907. The outlook of the industry is, however, highly uncertain, in view of the recent signs of depletion of the number of whales available for capture, as a result of the energetic operations of Norwegian whalers in late years.

*Production
for Internal
Consump-
tion.*

In the absence of a census of production in the Union and the bordering territories, these figures alone are available to show the activity of South Africa in production. There remains to be taken into account the vast production for local consumption alone, as in the case of tea, sugar, wheat and oats, and many minor objects such as candles, common soap, explosives, biscuits, beer, flour, cement, printed matter, cigarettes, matches, furniture, and other articles. Some idea of the importance of this production can be derived from the fact that in 1911 £529,559 of South African produce was exported from the Union to Rhodesia, being an increase of 127·5 per cent. since 1907. While slight increases have taken place in 1911 in the imports of butter, cheese, sugar, milk, meat, and other agricultural products, local production has increased in much greater ratio, though it cannot yet meet the steadily growing demands of the population. Creameries are extending in all the Provinces, farms are being fenced and dams are being erected, and substantial farm buildings erected. Live stock is improving enormously in quality as a result of care in breeding, and much greater care is taken of stock.

*Govern-
mental
Activity.*

Private activity has been supplemented by action by the Government. The first session of Parliament saw the passing of an Act (No. 11 of 1910) for the cleansing of Cape Province cattle; an Act (No. 11 of 1911) directed against agricultural pests; an Act (No. 14) dealing with stock diseases, and an Act (No. 20) providing for advances for the establishment of dipping tanks, of which over two thousand have recently been established. Moreover Acts of the second

session in 1912 provide for advances for fencing purposes (No. 17), and for conservation of water and irrigation (No. 8), and by these means the cattle of the farmer are ensured far better chances of health than in the past. With the exception of east coast fever in the Transkei and in the south-east of the Cape Province, the whole outlook for agriculture is most promising. The Government has also more directly undertaken the responsibility of many important irrigation works, including reservoirs and dams on the Olifants River, at Clanwilliam in the Cape, at Kopjes in the Orange Free State, and at Klipdrift near Potchefstroom in the Transvaal.

The figures of imports to South Africa are equally satisfactory, and show that the country still deserves its reputation as one of the best available markets for manufactured and partly manufactured goods. In 1907 the total imports of general merchandise amounted to £25,897,561; in 1910 they rose to £35,123,674, and in 1911 reached the total of £36,423,539, an increase of over 40 per cent. in five years. The chief items of the total are articles of food and drink, £6,455,045, a decrease of 3.51 per cent. over 1907; clothing and wearing apparel, £6,666,642, an increase of 50.14 per cent.; requirements for industries and factories, £3,759,758, an increase of 58.91 per cent.; textiles, £3,431,363, an increase of 65.45 per cent.; mining industry, £2,184,737, an increase of 29.54 per cent.; miscellaneous machinery and tools, £2,153,265, an increase of 76.67 per cent.; furniture and household requirements, £2,025,086, an increase of 44.30 per cent.; goods indicating increased spending power of the community, £2,046,103, an increase of 110.52 per cent.; electrical, £1,050,215, an increase of 234.63 per cent.; agriculture and farming, £1,685,922, an increase of 52.38 per cent.; while such minor heads as educational and scientific requisites, stationery and office supplies and drugs, chemicals, apothecary ware and surgical requisites show increases of 22 and 47.52 per cent.

PART III.

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*Growth of
 Local Pro-
 duction.*

These figures show clearly that there has been a great expansion of local industrial development, a remarkable increase in the general prosperity of the people, and a flourishing condition of the mining industry. The figures of the imports of food and drink show that in articles which South Africa produces there was a decrease since 1907 of a little under a million pounds, while in articles which South Africa cannot or does not produce there was an increase of over £760,000. The prosperity of the farmers is shown by the large increase in the imports of pedigree stock, fencing material, water-boring machinery, agricultural machinery and implements, windmills, wool and hay presses, plants, dipping tanks, fruit driers and evaporators, fertilizers, dips, seeds, wool bags, binding twine, baling wire, forage and fodder. The increase under the head of requirements for local industries and factories shows the extension of candle factories, printing and bookbinding establishments, brewing and wine making, leather industries, furniture and mattress making, wagon and cart building and farriery, tobacco factories, and miscellaneous industries. The increases of the imports of clothing, of textiles, and of such articles as motor cars, cycles, musical instruments, plate and silver ware, toys and fancy goods, phonographs, clocks and watches, jewellery and perfumes, shows the growth of spending power among all classes; and though 1911 saw a slackening in imports for mining purposes, that was merely due to the fact that a period of developmental work had come to an end, and not to any decline in the industry.

*Countries
 of Origin
 of Imports.*

Of the imports of general merchandise into South Africa the United Kingdom claimed in 1907 57·06 per cent., in 1910 59·01, and in 1911 58·35. Of other British possessions Australia has in these three years 7·46, 4·61, and 4·30, while all British oversea possessions together had 14·46, 10·36, and 10·05, giving for the British Empire the figures 71·52, 69·37, and 68·40 per cent. Germany

claimed 7.64, 10.30, and 9.62 respectively, the United States was remarkably steady with 7.84, 7.80, and 8.01. Then follow in order Belgium (2.22 in 1911), Sweden (1.87), Holland (1.75), Brazil (1.67), France (1.62), all other foreign countries taking 4.84 per cent. The total foreign percentages in the three years were 28.48, 30.63, and 31.60. The growth in German trade in 1910 and previous years was mainly due to success in obtaining large contracts for electrical plant, in consequence of certain banking facilities not possessed by the competing British firms. France has made no ground in the last few years, but Japan, which still only does a small trade, is becoming a more important factor in the market.

The decrease in the British share of the trade, though small, is not without importance, and steps have been taken by the establishment, as a result of the Colonial Conference of 1907, of a Trade Commissioner for South Africa to keep British traders more intimately acquainted with the circumstances of the market. Sir R. Sothorn Holland, the holder of that office, from whose report for 1911¹ the figures above given are derived, lays stress on the importance of the maintenance of local representation by British merchants and of careful study of the local market, in which the office of the Trade Commissioner in conjunction with the Commercial Intelligence Branch of the Board of Trade affords whatever assistance it can. The interest of the South African Government in the extension of British trade is shown also by the figures of the origin of Government imports as opposed to general merchandise. As is natural in a young country where the Government undertakes a wide sphere of duties, the Government imports reach high totals, amounting in 1910 to £2,757,086 and in 1911 to £2,001,960, as compared with £1,563,764 in 1907. The percentages of goods obtained from the United Kingdom were 79.42, 84.26, and

*The
British
Trade
Commissioner.*

*Government
Imports.*

¹ See Parl. Paper, Cd. 6405.

PART III. 75·23 for the Union of South Africa in these years, while for Rhodesia they stood at 98·05, 95·01, and 94·45, a striking sign, which is confirmed generally by examination of the proportions of general merchandise, of the eagerness of Rhodesia to prefer the United Kingdom as a source of supply.

*Tropical
Diseases
Bureau.*

The co-operation of the Government of the United Kingdom with the Government of South Africa is shown also in regard to minor matters of mutual interest to the Governments. The Union Government contributes annually a sum of £300 towards the cost of the Tropical Diseases Bureau, established in 1908 by the Secretary of State for the Colonies as a Bureau for Sleeping Sickness, but expanded in 1911 to be a bureau for the collection and dissemination of information regarding all tropical diseases. The Bureau issues besides a bi-monthly bulletin summarizing the literature on the subject of tropical diseases, a quarterly bulletin dealing with tropical diseases of animals, a question of the highest importance to the Union. The Union also contributes towards the expense of the Entomological Committee, which was established by the Secretary of State for the Colonies, under the Chairmanship of the Earl of Cromer, to study the relation of insects to disease in the tropics both as affecting men and animals. The Union also in the interests of South African trade contributes to the expenses of the Imperial Institute and maintains there a collection of South African exhibits.

*Entomo-
logical
Committee.*

*The High
Commis-
sioner.*

As the Government of the United Kingdom has a representative for trade purposes in the shape of the Trade Commissioner resident in South Africa, the Government of the Union promote the interests of South African trade through the instrumentality of the High Commissioner in London, who has a special department for trade attached to his office. The High Commissioner is also charged with the important duty of the purchase of the Government stores which are required for the use of the departments of the

Union Government, and the importance of his commercial functions, as compared with his more general duty of representing the Union in England, was shown distinctly at the Imperial Conference of 1911, when the delegates of the Union Government laid stress on the undesirability of entrusting political functions to the High Commissioner on the ground that he was appointed because of and with special regard to his commercial qualifications.¹

¹ The trade statistics of South Africa are elaborately set out in the Annual Statement of the Trade and Shipping of the Union of South Africa and of Southern and North-Western Rhodesia, issued by the Union Government, of which six volumes appeared up to the end of 1912. There are annual reports of the Railways and Harbours Board, which since Union manages the Railways and Harbours. In finances, there are the annual statements of the Treasurer and the reports of the Auditor-General. Of special value are the reports of H.M. Trade Commissioner in South Africa; see Parl. Papers, Cd. 5674 and 6405.

CHAPTER III

THE UNION OF SOUTH AFRICA—MINERALS, FAUNA, AND LIVE STOCK

§ I. MINERALS¹

PART III. THE mineral wealth of South Africa has been, of course, —♦— the main source of its riches, and of such measure of progress as has been allotted to it. The diamond industry *Diamonds.* deserves the place of honour as that which first called popular attention to the Cape. The De Beers Mining Company, though no longer in the possession of virtual monopoly as it was until 1904-5, shows how skilful management can result in the maintenance of high prices and profits. In 1911-12 the value of diamonds sold reached £5,465,887, as compared with £5,414,896 in 1910-11, and the fall in the output and prices seen after the financial troubles in America in 1907 has been recouped. In the Orange Free State there are mines at Jagersfontein and at Koffyfontein, besides others, such as the Roberts-Victor, the Voorspoed Diamond Mines, the Vaal River, &c. The total output of the Free State in 1909-10 was £1,525,707. In the Transvaal the Premier Mine commenced operations in 1902; it is located 25 miles east of Pretoria, and is famous for the production of the Cullinan diamond, weighing $3,024\frac{3}{4}$ carats, which in 1907 was presented by the Transvaal Government to King Edward VII. The mine is worked on the system of excavation of levels or terraces; it will probably be continued to a

¹ In this section the minerals of Swaziland are mentioned in view of the close connexion of that Protectorate and the Transvaal.

depth of 1,200 to 1,500 feet, and at 12,000,000 loads of 16 cubic feet per annum it is calculated that the excavation will take forty years to complete. The output of the mine, sixty per cent. of the profits of which belong to the Government, was valued at £1,433,170 in 1911, while the total output for the Transvaal was £1,628,876. The diamonds of Rhodesia may here be mentioned, as they have formed the subject of a famous lawsuit between the British South Africa Company and De Beers, which claimed the right to all diamonds in Rhodesia under an agreement with the Company, a claim upheld by the House of Lords. The total export in 1911 was only £31,034 worth, produced from the Somabula workings near Gwelo.

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In addition to the diamonds procured by digging, a considerable number of superior stones are found in and near the bed of the Vaal River, especially since 1909 at Bloemhof. Diamonds there have been found over a wide area of 2,000 square miles extending from Schweizer Reineke thirty-five miles north of Bloemhof to nearly as far east as Klerksdorp. The value of the stones averages 90 shillings a carat, and about 6,500 carats a month are found.

*Alluvial
Diamonds.*

Gold has long been worked in South Africa, as the old workings of Rhodesia show. Carl Mauch, who exploited between 1864 and 1870 the north of the Transvaal and part of the country between the Limpopo and Zambesi Rivers, foresaw the future development, and in 1868 work began on the Tati goldfields, which were among his discoveries. In 1872 reef mining began at Eersteling in the Transvaal, and the first successful field at Lydenburg in the Transvaal was opened in 1873. The Banket reef on the Witwatersrand was found to be auriferous in 1884, a battery was erected in 1885, and by 1886 the rush for the Transvaal had begun. By 1898 South Africa came first among the gold-producing countries of the world with 28 per cent. of the output; the war cost her this place, but by 1906 it had been regained

Gold.

PART III. by the Transvaal with £24,579,987; since then the Transvaal has remained at the top, producing in 1910 34 per cent. of the total, and in 1911 36 per cent., the absolute figures being £35,041,485 in 1911.

The Rand. Of the gold of the Transvaal the alluvial gold forms an infinitesimal portion, the only successful field being that at Lydenburg. The Witwatersrand presents many remarkable features, which distinguish it from the ordinary gold mine. Johannesburg is situated at one of the few spots at which the granite, which forms the underlying bed rock of South Africa, has forced its way to the surface. Over that granite are beds of clay and sand, interleaved with which are the layers of gold-bearing conglomerates, composed of water-worked pebbles embedded in a cement, which is impregnated with gold and iron. This granite with these layers above it by some upheaval was brought towards the surface, carrying with it the layers of sand and clay, but tilting them to the angles at which they now are found. The line of outcrop extends due east and west for nearly eighty miles, curves at both ends with many faults towards the south, and may be traced across the Vaal River near Klerksdorp on the one side and past Heidelberg on the other, thus forming the Rand basin. After the great upheaval further sedimentary deposits appear to have taken place, as among others coal measures directly overlie the gold-bearing strata. Later the whole district appears to have been elevated, in some cases with so great denudation of the superjacent strata as to leave the granite exposed. The extent of the available ore depends largely on the angle at which the beds dip, and this is not yet generally determined; recent experiments seem to show that the angle is not so great as was at one time believed, and as it seems that the increase of temperature with increase of depth is perhaps lower than normal elsewhere, it is not impossible that very deep mining may be practicable, and extend the life of the mines indefinitely.

With the development of the industry the methods of extracting the gold have been progressively improved, until the residues are believed to contain not more than from 4s. to 8s. a ton of gold, and even from them efforts are being made to extract this remnant. The amount of labour employed is a matter of first-class importance; before the war of 1899 it reached about 96,700 natives, but as the drink traffic was not then prohibited, about thirty per cent. must be deducted from this total for men useless from this cause. An experiment with Chinese labour was carried out from 1904 to 1910, when the last Chinese left South Africa. The largest numbers employed were 51,427 in 1906, when there were at the same time 93,628 natives and 17,980 whites. The experiment gave rise to much controversy, and was abandoned by the responsible Government of the Transvaal. It was argued that, as the Chinese labourers were not permitted to remain in the country or to acquire property there, and were confined in compounds, they were in an improper and semi-servile position. Since the termination of the experiment improved methods of recruiting have resulted in the steady increase of the native labour employed, until in 1912 the figures reached 210,362 with 25,129 whites; the industry could, however, use more labour, while on the other hand it already drains seriously the available labour supply of the whole of South Africa. Many of the labourers are imported from Portuguese East Africa, as under the agreement with Mozambique of 1909, in return for concessions as to trade and railway rates, the Transvaal licensed recruiting agents are allowed to engage Portuguese natives for service on the mines. In 1913 the Union Government decided to forbid the introduction into the Union for work on the mines of natives of Africa recruited from lands north of 22° S. latitude. The mortality among these natives had been excessive. In July, 1913, a serious strike among the white workers at the mines was followed by rioting at Johannesburg, only the presence

CH. III.
—♦—
Labour.

PART III. of the regular forces preventing serious damage being done.

—♦—
*Unskilled
White
Labour.*

The question of the use of unskilled white labour to take over part of the work done by the natives has been considered, but no satisfactory result seems to have eventuated from the experiments which have been tried. It is argued that paying the unskilled white 12s. a day, which is probably a minimum wage, and assuming that he does twice as much as a native, profits would tend wholly to disappear. On the other hand the increased use of drills in place of hand drills lessens expenditure, and increases the number of skilled white labourers employed, and it appears to be probable that their use will be extended in future.

*Other
Mining
Areas.*

The total production of the Witwatersrand mines in 1911 was £33,543,479, and of that £7,763,086 was disbursed in dividends. There are also goldfields at Klerksdorp and Potchefstroom, in the Venterskroon district, in the De Kaap district, including the Sheba mine, and the Steynsdorp goldfields on the Swaziland border. In Swaziland proper there are also fields which are under development especially at the Horo, and Pigg's Peak, and the Forbes Reef estate. Of the many minor fields the Malmani may be mentioned, because Mauch predicted their future importance, which so far has not been realized owing to the prevalence of water and the hard character of the quartz.

*Mines in
Natal.*

In Natal the total output of gold in 1911 was only 1,706 oz. The presence of gold was long known, but the Zulu kings discouraged prospecting, and in 1886 it was the founders of the New Republic in North Zululand who began gold-searching operations. There are mines at Nondweni, east of Dundee and south-west of Vryheid, at Vryheid, and elsewhere.

Coal.

Coal has been found over a very large area of South Africa, the places where it is known to exist exceeding 56,000 square miles. It is found in seams, of which many are from ten

to twenty feet thick, and in no case does the coal lie more than 5,000 feet below the surface, being therefore easy to work, especially as gas and fire-damp appear to be unknown. The local coal is largely consumed on the railway lines, exclusive use of local coal being made in Natal. It is also in demand for the use of ships, but it is not of the highest class. Experiments in 1893 showed that to produce the same amount of heat as 100 lb. of best Welsh coal the following quantities were needed: Indwe coal, 161 lb.; Vereeniging, 169; Cyphergat and Fairview, 179; and Molteno, 204. These figures do not include Dundee coal, which is of much superior quality, and which is to Welsh as 128 to 100. The Wankie coal of Rhodesia is still superior to Dundee coal or any other coal found in the Union.

In the Cape the collieries are situated in the Stormberg district at Indwe, which is connected with Sterkstroom by a railway 66 miles in length which is being extended to Natal, and at Molteno, which is close to the Eastern Main Railway Line. Coal also exists at Cala near Maclear, and near Cradock, and traces have been found near Beaufort West. But even the best Cape coal is not very satisfactory, and only in the Cape itself does it compete successfully with Natal coal.

In Natal the principal collieries lie between Newcastle and Elandslaagte in the Klip River Country, and at Utrecht and at Hlobane in the Vryheid district. The output has increased enormously of late years: in 1895 it only reached 160,115 tons, while in 1911 it reached 2,392,456, and the trade in bunker coal which was 118,740 tons in 1900 was in 1911, 1,273,556 tons. Exports have also increased from 111,945 tons in 1904 to 342,774 in 1911.

In the Orange Free State coal exists at Bethulie, and is being mined near Kroonstad and Heilbron and at Viljoen's Drift to the north of the Vaal River. The output has steadily increased since it was 118,636 tons for 1904-5, and in 1908 was 442,372 tons.

PART III. The Transvaal is exceptionally fortunate in its wealth of coal. On the East Rand the coal actually overlies the gold reefs, and thus furnishes the means of generating power with the least expense and difficulty. The principal districts which are centres of coal-mining are Brakpan, Vereeniging, and the Middelburg, and the Vereeniging collieries yield much of the coal used for the railways. Since 1901 the output has increased from 794,144 tons to 4,343,680 tons in 1911, and the value per ton has decreased from 8*s.* 3*d.* to 4*s.* 8*d.* Bituminous coal is found near the Limpopo River, fifteen miles south-west of the Messina copper mines. There is also anthracite coal in Swaziland, and its development may be expected when the country is opened up by the railway.

In the Transvaal. South Africa is not rich in silver, though indications of it occur very widely. Silver mines were once worked opposite Pomona Island to the north of Capetown; a certain quantity of silver was once produced in the vicinity of Pretoria, and there were mines at Marico near Zeerust, where the galena was said to have yielded sixty ounces of silver a ton. The difficulty in the development of the industry is the absence of good native coke, rendering the sending of ore to England to be treated the more economical method of extraction. The yield of silver from the Transvaal since 1903 has risen from 349,955 oz., valued at £36,744, to 894,333 oz., valued at £96,557 in 1911.

Copper. Copper is found largely in Namaqualand, where it was known to exist in as early as the seventeenth century. It was the first mineral to be worked by Europeans, operations commencing in 1852 when eleven tons of ore were shipped. The annual output now reaches between thirty and forty thousand tons. The principal mines are owned by the Cape Copper-mining Company and the Namaqua Mining Company, the former of which has paid about seven million pounds in dividends, while their property shows no signs of exhaustion. The centre of their area is Ookiep, which is connected by

a railway line, 92 miles long, with Port Nolloth, whence a service of small steamers maintains communication with Cape Town. Copper and platinum have also been discovered in the Insizwa range (Mount Ayliff). Copper is also worked by the Messina Company on the banks of the Limpopo on the site of old native workings. CH. III. —♦♦—

Lead is found here and there and was formerly worked with silver at the Marico Mines in the Transvaal. It is also produced at Edendale and at Rooikrantz near Pretoria. The value, however, of the total produce of the Transvaal for 1909 was £15,478, and in 1906 it was only £2,704. *Lead.*

Tin has been found near Grahamstown, and has been worked at Kuils River near Cape Town. In the Transvaal it is of importance, extensive prospecting and development work having been carried on in the Bushveld district, while an alluvial deposit has been worked at Zwaartkloof, near Warmbaths. The output in 1911 for the whole of the Transvaal was 3,546 tons. In Swaziland it is worked sixty miles east from Lake Chrissie, where it lies in granite yielding about 21 lb. of pure tin per ton. Tin deposits showing about 6½ per cent. of tin are being worked in Zululand at about fifteen miles from Melmoth. *Tin.*

Natal possesses much graphite, and trial mining has taken place in the Klip River, Alfred, Alexandra, and Pietermaritzburg Counties of the Province. Zinc exists in many parts of South Africa, including the Malmani and Waterberg districts of the Transvaal, and in view of the extensive use of this mineral in the cyanide process for the extraction of gold from tailings there is a possibility of the establishment of a local industry, especially as the large deposits at Broken Hill in Rhodesia are unfortunately refractory and have not yet been treated successfully. Antimony is found in conjunction with silver in the Zoutpansberg, and there are deposits of antimony near Steynsdorp in the De Kaap district. *Other Metals.*

Iron ore has hitherto been little worked in the Union, *Iron.*

- PART III. though a good deal has been done in Rhodesia. There are
 —♦— deposits in all four Provinces, that near Dundee in Natal
 being said to be of special purity. Experimental workings
 with electrical machinery are stated to have resulted in the
 production of steel of excellent quality, and the natives used
 to work the metal freely, as the traces of smelting furnaces
Cinnabar. over the country show. Cinnabar has been found in the
 Transvaal at Marico and at Komati Poort on the extreme
 east. Mica is supposed to exist in the Zoutpansberg between
Asbestos. the Selati and Great Letaba Rivers. Asbestos of an excellent
 quality is produced by the Cape Asbestos Company from
 deposits near the Orange River, and there are other deposits
 at Prieska and east of Carolina in the Transvaal. There are
Salt. also deposits near Eshowe in Zululand. Salt is found in all
 the Provinces and is largely worked at Uitenhage, near
 Cradock, Malmesbury, and Bloemfontein, and in a less degree
 at Port Elizabeth, Bredasdorp, Kimberley, &c. In some cases
 the quality is very good.
- Sulphur.* Deposits of sulphur have been found in the Cape at
 Malmesbury and Touw's River, and in the Transvaal at
 Amsterdam. Bismuth exists at Lydenburg and Waterberg
 in the Transvaal; there is a fine deposit of Iceland spar at
 Clanwilliam in the Cape; Swaziland has sheelite, worth £80
 a ton, and monazite; uranium exists near Pretoria in appar-
 ently payable quantities; and in several places there are traces
 of molybdenum, manganese, fluorite, platinum, nickel, tellu-
 rium and other metals, none of which is so far of any real
 economic importance.
- Oil.* Natal possesses oil in the shale beds, and mineral oil
 exists also near Inhambane and near Harrismith, while
Lime. petroleum is possibly to be found near Ceres. Lime and
 cement are made successfully at Pretoria, and at Port
 Shepstone in Natal. Fire clay is worked in Natal and the
 Transvaal, and the Cape has clay fit for pottery. Good
 •
Stone. sandstone is found at Steenpan in the Free State, and has

been used for public buildings in that Province and in the Transvaal, while other beds are worked near Bloemfontein and in the Transvaal. Granite is quarried in the Cape Peninsula and at the Paarl and between Pretoria and Johannesburg.

About seven to eight thousand tons of guano are still annually derived from the guano islands off the west coast of the Cape, though the yield is not so large as formerly. The guano is used by local farmers, to whom the Government sell it at the fixed rate of £6 10s. a ton. Guano is also taken from Bird Island in Port Elizabeth. Nitrate deposits exist in several parts of the country, and are said to extend for a distance of fifty miles in the Doornberg Mountains near Prieska. The payable rock so far has only been found in patches, and therefore the future of the industry is uncertain. There are small deposits in Natal. Saltpetre exists near Bethlehem in the Orange Free State, and nitrate is said to exist near Calvinia and Beaufort West.

§ 2. FAUNA¹

The South African lion, once common in the Cape, is now stated to be extinct south of the Vaal or Orange Rivers, but is found frequently enough to the north, even in the mining districts of Rhodesia, especially near the lower waters of the Umzingwani: its length reaches 10 feet, its height at the shoulder 40 inches, its weight 400 to 500 pounds; the lioness averaging 25 to 30 per cent. less than the male. Their age reaches at least thirty years, their strength is enormous, and they are gregarious, though they do not usually attack man, except when pressed by hunger. They are hunted with dogs or ridden down with horses and shot.

¹ In this section the whole of British South Africa is included, and not merely the Union.

- PART III. The leopard, usually called the tiger, is a ferocious beast, and owing to the damage which it does to sheep and goats when its favourite food, baboons and antelopes, fails, it is poisoned wherever possible, and is becoming rare in the Cape and Natal, but still is commonly found to the north. The cheetah, *Cynaclurus jubatus*, is smaller in size, and seldom dangerous even if wounded: it is beautifully marked with black spots over a red and yellow ground, but being despite its swiftness easy to kill, it is very rare in the Cape and Natal and is nowhere numerous. The woolly cheetah, *Felis lanca*, is said to be confined to the Karroo district of South Africa, and even there is very rare: its name is derived from its coat, which is thicker and longer than that of the ordinary cheetah, and the colour is more uniform, and the blotches far less distinct. The serval, *Felis serval*, which is about twenty inches in height, is confined practically to the bushy country north of the Limpopo. The red lynx attains a height of about fifteen inches, and though much more savage than the Indian lynx resembles it in its tufted ears and short tail: it is still found as far south as the Orange River. The wild cat, *Felis caffra*, red-grey with black markings, is found all over South Africa, but is becoming rare in the Cape and Natal. The reed cat, *Felis chaus*, is found freely in marshy parts of the interior.
- Hyaena.* Of the hyaena there are three varieties, the striped, *Striata*, the brown, *Brunnea*, and the spotted, *Crocota*, of which the first is very rare indeed, the second rare, and the third common though nearly exterminated in the Cape and Natal. All three are powerful animals, deadly to the stock farmer, and their skins are practically of no value. The aard-wolf, *Proteles cristatus*, resembles in appearance the hyaena but is considerably smaller, standing about eighteen inches in height: it has practically no teeth, and lives in the main on insects and carcasses, though it has been accused of being destructive to stock. The civet cats and allied species are represented by
- Tiger.*
- Cheetah.*
- Serval.*
- Lynx.*
- Reed Cat.*
- Aard-Wolf.*
- Civet Cat.*

one true civet cat, *Viverra*, four or five genets, *Genetta*, several CH. III.
mongooses, and some other small animals. —♦—

The *Cynoidea* are represented by the longeared fox, *Fox*.
Otocyon megalotis, which is about eighteen inches in height
and has forty-six to forty-eight teeth in place of forty-two of
the ordinary fox. It is rare in the Cape, but common in the
interior. The African hunting-dog is about twenty-six inches *Hunting-*
in height and is an excellent hunter, so good in this regard *Dog*.
that in the neighbourhood of farms it is carefully destroyed.
There are several species of the jackal, the blackbacked or *Jackal*.
silver, *Canis mesomelas*, the motlhose, *Canis lateralis*, and the
hare-jackal, *Canis chama*: the two latter are smaller than the
silver-jackal and are less widely distributed. There are two
varieties of the otter, and these animals exist in large num- *Otter*.
bers in the Bangweolo swamps in North-Eastern Rhodesia,
where they are hunted by the natives for their skins. On the
other hand there are only weasels to represent the *Aretoidea*, *Weasels*.
both the bear and the racoon being wholly unknown.

Of the hoofed animals the elephant is of special interest. *Elephant*.
The African elephant was tamed by the Romans, and that it
can be tamed has been shown in 1911 at Api in the Congo,
where fifty have been successfully so trained. The young
are captured in the dry season, the old animals being
frightened away. They are difficult to rear in captivity and
the training is slow, but they can be made to draw carts in
pairs or to plough, and they can be ridden, travelling at the
rate of five kilometres an hour for five hours, but they must
not be worked in the heat of the day. The importance of
this question is considerable, especially in the case of North-
Eastern Rhodesia, where the elephant abounds in the country
south of Lakes Tanganyika, Mweru, and Bangweolo. In
the Cape elephants, once numerous, are only found in the
Knysna, Alexandria, Uitenhage, and Bathurst, forming a
narrow strip of country 250 miles long; elsewhere in the
Cape and in the Transvaal they have been exterminated, with

PART III. the exception of a few on the Portuguese frontier. To the north of the Zambesi the numbers are still considerable, and care is everywhere now taken to prevent indiscriminate slaughter. The elephant differs considerably from the Indian species, especially in the possession of very large ears, and in the absence of the soft depression in the skull which is so characteristic a feature of the Indian elephant and which offers a favourite mark for the sportsman. The female is always tusked, but the tusks are much lighter than those of the male, averaging about 15 to 25 pounds as compared with 120 pounds in the case of the male.

Rhinoceros. The black rhinoceros, *Bicornis*, is found practically in the same sort of country as the elephant, having been driven to the swamps and other unhealthy parts of the country where man cannot conveniently follow owing to the deadly effect of the tsetse on horses or oxen. It is practically extinct south of the Zambesi. At its greatest size it measures nearly eleven feet in length, ten in girth, and stands five feet nine inches. The white rhinoceros, *Simus*, though misnamed as it is nearly as black as the other, differs from it in its enormous size, attaining thirteen feet nine inches in length, twelve feet in girth, and six feet six inches in height. The animal is excessively rare: a few were killed in 1894 and 1895 in Mashonaland, Zululand, and the Zambesi valley.

Zebra. The zebra proper (*Equus zebra*) is nearly extinct, being preserved in a few places in the Cape, but the species known as Burchell's zebra is common in Northern Rhodesia, where efforts are being made to tame it and render it useful for riding purposes. The former stands about twelve hands high and is beautifully striped, but there is no marking under the belly: the latter is striped under the belly and is a little higher. Another variety of zebra, *Equus chapmani*, is found in the Bechuanaland Protectorate and further north up to the Soudan: it differs from Burchell's zebra in being more evenly striped. The quagga, once common in the Orange Free

State but not found north of the Vaal, has unhappily been exterminated. CH. III.

The hippopotamus, once common in every Cape river, survives now only at the mouth of the Orange River: there are also some in the rivers of Zululand, in Mashonaland, and the Upper Zambesi. It reaches a length of fourteen feet, and only the elephant exceeds it in size and weight. Hippopotamus.

The wart hog, *Phacochoerus aethiopicus*, is found all over South Africa, though rare in the Cape and Natal: it haunts the bush near rivers, has ferocious-looking tusks, and stands about twenty-six inches high, but gives very poor sport. The river hog, a similar species, is occasionally found in Natal. Wart Hog.

The buffalo, *Bos caffer*, still exists in the Cape, in the Kowie forest, and the Addo bush, some five hundred head being reckoned to be there in 1912. It is only common along the Zambesi, and ranks second to the lion for courage and fierceness. It stands five feet high, is black in colour, and both male and female have horns of which the length is from three feet to three feet six inches. It suffered severely from the rinderpest of 1896-8, and its numbers are certainly not increasing. Buffalo.

South Africa is specially rich in species of antelopes. The eland, *Oreas canna*, is almost extinct south of the Limpopo; it is the largest of the antelopes and weighs as much as 900 or 1,000 lb., stands from five to six feet high, and is sometimes nine feet in length. The sable antelope, *Hippotragus niger*, is found in the Zambesi and Kafue valleys, and occasionally in the north of the Transvaal. The roan antelope, *Hippotragus equinus*, occupies much the same habitat, but is extinct south of the Vaal, and is rapidly becoming rare elsewhere. The blaauwbok, somewhat smaller than the roan antelope, has now disappeared from its former home at Swellendam, but is not rare on the Kafue River and the Nyika plateau. The koodoo, *Strepsiceros kudu*, named Antelopes.

PART III. from its spiral horns, is the most plentiful of the larger antelopes and is still found in the Cape, where 10,000 were reckoned to exist in 1912: its horns attain their largest size in Nyasaland. The oryx now lives in the most remote and waterless parts of the Kalahari desert: it is of special interest, as it appears in the Cape arms and is conjectured to have been the starting-point for the conception of the unicorn, the two horns when seen in profile appearing as one. Occasionally it migrates as far east as Mafeking and Vryburg.

Hartebeest. Of the hartebeest there are several species; the ordinary animal is found in the north of the Cape, the Orange Free State, the north-west of the Transvaal, throughout Bechuanaland, throughout the Kalahari, and in North-Western Rhodesia. Lichtenstein's hartebeest has its abode in Eastern Mashonaland, and on the Kafue. The black wildebeest or white-tailed gnu, *Connochaetes gnu*, has horns like those of an ox; it is preserved in the Victoria West Province of the Cape, and in North-Eastern Rhodesia. The blue wildebeest, or brindled gnu, is nearly extinct in the Cape and Orange Free State, but is found in Bechuanaland and Griqualand West, and in the Kalahari and North-Western Rhodesia. The waterbuck, *Kobus ellipsiprymnus*, is found in the extreme north of the Transvaal, and in the Zambesi valley; it is noted for the evil flavour of its flesh.

Bushbuck. The bushbuck, *Tragelaphus sylvaticus*, is found in the bush from the Knysna to Natal. Closely akin is the spotted or banded bushbuck, *Tragelaphus scriptus*, which lives in the Northern Kalahari, the Upper Zambesi, and still further north. The Inyala is another species; it is found in Zululand, Amatongaland, and the Zambesi valley. Allied to the Inyala is the Sitatunga or Nakong, which is found in parts of Northern Rhodesia, and which has lyre-shaped horns.

Duiker. The duiker, *Cephalolopus grimmi*, is found all over the country, deriving its name from its habit of diving into the bush when alarmed; it was adopted by Khama as his crest.

There are also the redbuck, the bluebuck, and the reedbuck ; CH. III.
 the first of these is found in the forests of Zululand and the
 Northern Transvaal, the second in the Cape and Natal, and
 the last still lingers in the country round the rivers north of
 the Transvaal. The rehbuck in the varieties of red and
 grey, *Cervicapra lalandi* and *Pelea capreola*, are pretty widely
 distributed, but not very common. The bontebok, *Bubalis*
pygagra, and blesbok, *Bubalis albifrons*, once very common
 are now very rare ; a few of the former are preserved at
 Zoetendal's Vley near Cape Agulhas, and in the Swellendam
 district, while the latter are scarce even in the Transvaal.
 The lechwe and pookoo, *Kobus lechwe* and *vardonii*, are found
 near the Kafue River, by Lakes Bangweolo and Mweru, and
 in the north of the Kalahari ; the former is not rare, is very
 shy but a fierce fighter if brought to bay, and though sturdy
 very fleet. The palla, *Aepyceros melampus*, has very beautiful
 horns, and is a great jumper ; it is common in the Eastern
 Transvaal and further north. The springbuck, *Gazella*
euchore, is the most frequent of all the antelopes of South
 Africa, and since the introduction of a close season there has
 been some reappearance of the numbers which used to mark
 the migrations of this animal. The steinbok, *Nanotragus*
campestris, is common, and serves in the place of the hare
 for coursing purposes ; the oribi is found in a few districts of
 the Cape ; the grysbok occurs along the south and east coast
 from the Cape to the Zambesi ; and the klipspringer, *Oreotra-*
gus saltator, is found on the more rugged and solitary moun-
 tains throughout the country. It is extremely agile, and has
 earned for itself the soubriquet of the chamois of South
 Africa.

The giraffe is now rare ; it occurs in the Kalahari, in the *Giraffe*.
 Luangwa valley, and in small numbers in the north of the
 Transvaal and Matabeleland. Its height reaches 17 to 19
 feet ; its colour is bright yellow, while the old bulls are
 almost black. It has two short hairy horns, and the hide is

PART III. especially valued for whip lashes, it being possible to cut
—♦— a strip of twenty feet long down the back.

Hare. There are various species of hare, the Cape hare, the rock hare, the mountain hare, the spring hare, &c. The English rabbit is found on Robben Island, but is kept from the mainland for fear of a repetition of the experiences of Australia in its over-extensive development.

Ant Bear. The ant bear is found all over the country ; it is about six feet in length, and is equipped with an enormously long snout and short and stout legs adapted for digging up the ant heaps. The scaly anteater, *Manis temmincki*, is found in the Cape, the Orange Free State, and further north. The porcupine is found all over South Africa, and there are four pangolins, which are arboreal in habit and live on ants.

Birds. Of the innumerable game birds of South Africa, the most important is the ostrich. In its wild state it is found only north of the Vaal and the Orange Rivers, but even there it is becoming rare, thanks to the eagerness with which it is hunted for the sake of its feathers, which are more valuable than those of the tame bird. Next in size is the great kori bustard, *Otis kori*, the cock bird sometimes reaching a height of five feet and weighing 40 lb. The koorhaan is a bustard, and varies in size from a pheasant to a large fowl : it is well known for its harsh croak. There are twelve sorts of francolin, five quails, three guinea fowls, four sand grouse, eleven bustards, two dikkops, three geese, thirteen duck, widgeon and teal, three snipe, and three varieties of the ibis, including the sacred red variety. There are also varieties of the stork, flamingo, heron, pelican, hawk, and owl.

Snakes. South Africa is unfortunate enough to possess no fewer than seventy varieties of snake, of which more than half, an unusually large proportion, are poisonous. Deaths from snake-bite probably exceed a hundred a year, though many deaths of natives from this cause are doubtless not reported. The best-known varieties are the puff adder, which is very

venomous, the berg and night adders, the schaaap-sticker or sheep-striker, and the mamba, which is found in Natal and is exceptionally deadly. There are several varieties of cobras, yellow, black, green and spotted, the most deadly being the Ringhals, which can eject poison to a distance of several feet. The constrictors do not grow to a large size, and are not recorded to have killed a man. There are two varieties of python and also rock snakes. Sea snakes are found in the pools along the shore; the black and the yellow varieties are poisonous.

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The crocodile is said to be extinct in the Cape and the Orange Free State, but is found in the Limpopo, the Tugela, and the streams of the north, and it is the tutelary deity of the Basuto and Bakwena tribes.

There are a dozen varieties of the tortoise.

Tortoise.

The sea fisheries of South Africa are of considerable importance. The Fisheries Commission of 1892 found that of fifty species of edible fish caught off the coast six were peculiar to the western waters, eight to the eastern, twenty-five were common, and eleven were not located. The difference between the two oceans is due to the fact that on the east the warm Mozambique current affects the waters, while the antarctic currents depress the temperature of the western sea. The principal fish are the snoek, a voracious feeder which frequents the coast from September to March, and weighs up to 10 lb.; the steenbrass, which runs up to 70 lb.; the gheelbeek, up to 50 lb.; the kabeljaauw, the klip fish, the roman, hottentot, stokvisch, stompnus, &c. Table Bay is rich in cray fish, Mossel Bay produces excellent oysters, and Port Elizabeth superior soles. The use of steam trawlers has added greatly to the capture of fish. Whales are still plentiful in the surrounding seas, and a considerable industry, as has been seen above, has been developed, based in part on Cape and in part on Portuguese ports, but the enormous numbers of whales killed, 17,500 in the Southern hemisphere

Sea Fisheries.

PART III. in 1911, threatens the permanency of the industry. In addition to the oil, worth about £25 a ton, the carcasses are used for the supply of whale-meat meal, made from the fresh flesh, and yielding 79 per cent. of protein, whale guano made from the carcass and a third of bones, yielding 8.50 per cent. of ammonia and 21 per cent. of tribasic phosphates of lime, and bone meal, yielding about 4 per cent. ammonia and 50 per cent. phosphates. The whole of the dried carcass can also be converted into a rich guano, giving about 11 per cent. ammonia and 20 per cent. phosphates.

*Fresh-
Water
Fish.*

The inland waters of South Africa are naturally deficient in fish: only fifty indigenous species are said to be known, and of these seven are partly marine. From the Orange River southward the fishing is poor, but further north the rivers and valleys are often well stocked; even lakes which are only full of water during the rains are frequently rich in fish which preserve life by burrowing in the ooze before it becomes hard. The chief native fish are the catfish or baba, *Clarias capensis*, a kind of silurus and the yellow fish, both of which are of considerable size. The tiger fish is found in some of the rivers which run into Lake Mweru, and the mogel is widely spread. More important, however, than these fish are the trout which have been introduced into many of the streams of the Cape, Natal, and the Transvaal, and which attain a considerable size in South African waters. Similar work is also being carried out in the Orange Free State. Inland fisheries in the Cape are regulated by a Provincial Ordinance of 1911, which establishes a close season and permits trout fishing only on taking out a licence.

§ 3. LIVE STOCK

Horses.

Details as to the distribution of live stock in South Africa can most conveniently be given under the several territories, but there are some considerations of general application

which may be summarized here. Horses can be reared successfully, and of late years the breed has been improved by the introduction of thoroughbred stock, half-bred hackney, Cleveland and Suffolk-Punch and others. But the great enemy of the development of the trade is horse-sickness, which overruns the country from time to time and which often is the cause of most serious losses. The mortality from the disease increases as one proceeds north, but with spread of cultivation the tendency to disease somewhat diminishes. The disease is not necessarily fatal, if care is taken, and a 'salted' horse, that is, one which has been attacked and has recovered, is worth sometimes twice as much as an ordinary horse. The price varies from £20 to £25 for troopers in the Cape and Natal to £50 to £75 in Rhodesia for 'salted' animals.

Mules are mainly bred from Spanish jackasses out of Cape mares: they are less subject to horse-sickness and to the attacks of the tsetse fly than horses, will eat anything, and can go further without water. A team of eight with two horses as leaders will do twenty-five miles a day. The donkey is immune to the tsetse and does not suffer so much from horse-sickness. It is handicapped as a draught animal by its small size, but teams of twenty are sometimes used and can drag a load of 2 tons 10 miles a day at the rate of $1\frac{1}{2}$ miles an hour. They are chiefly bred in Bechuanaland round Vryburg and also in Rhodesia. Camels are employed in a limited degree for police and mail purposes in Gordonaland and North-Eastern Rhodesia: they can live for some time on the native water-melon which is found in the Kalahari. The most important draught animal in South Africa, despite the competition of trains and, where roads are available, traction-engines, is the ox. From sixteen to eighteen animals make up a team, and they can drag for about 18 or 21 miles a day a load of 3 or 4 tons. Of late years use has also been made of cows for dairying purposes, and various experiments

PART III. have been made at cross-breeding to improve the milk supply :
 —♦— for this Jerseys, Guernseys, Ayrshires, Shorthorns, Herefords, Devons and others have been imported, but the Friesland is especially used. A good cow sometimes gives 5 gallons of

Butter. 1 lb. of butter has been obtained from 20 pints of milk, but up country the yield is much smaller and the proportion of butter which can be extracted is much less. The Department of Agriculture in the Union insists on the importance of co-operation between farmers to secure uniform quality and a ready market. Cheeses as yet are only imitations of

Cheese. the Dutch, Cheddar, and Stilton types. For purposes of slaughter as yet prospects seem brightest in Rhodesia, and the British South Africa Company assist settlers in this regard by periodically importing heifers and bulls into Southern Rhodesia to resell on easy terms to the settlers. In North-Eastern Rhodesia cattle are lent on easy terms to farmers. The prospects of ranching in that territory are so favourable that it is probable that it will become in due course the seat of the operations of companies engaged in the preparation of meat extracts. The Liebig Company have acquired in 1913, 1,200,000 acres in Southern Rhodesia for grazing purposes.

Sheep. Sheep can live wherever water is available except in a few localities, as at Oudtshoorn; but in the absence of irrigation about 2 to 2½ acres of land are required for each animal, while in some places in the Karroo even 12 acres may be requisite. The Cape sheep is a hairy, fat-tailed animal, and is used chiefly for food. The South African merino is a cross between the Cape sheep and imported merino, Saxony, and Spanish rams, and the fleece is improved by recrossing with pure-bred stock. The wools of South Africa still sell below the prices realized by Australian wools, but this is being remedied by the efforts of the Department of Agriculture, in educating farmers in the proper baling and

classification of wools. The recognized size of a bale of wool is 48 inches in length, while the sides are 28 inches wide, and the weights are 375 lb. greasy, 220 lb. fleece washed, and 175 lb. scoured. CH. III.
—♦—

The ordinary native goat is an animal of no great value, *Goats.* but the Angora goat, the result of a cross with high-class rams and ewes introduced from Persia, Cashmere, and different parts of Europe, is an animal of great value. The quality of the hair is improved, as in the case of the sheep, by crossing the Angora with a thoroughbred ram. Each Angora goat yields about $2\frac{1}{2}$ lb. of mohair a year. The ordinary Cape goat is mainly of value as an article of food where nothing better can be produced.

Pigs are still only utilized to a small extent, the excessive *Pigs.* heat of the summer confining the curing of bacon to some three or four of the winter months. Poultry are also *Poultry.* neglected, but the high prices which are obtained for eggs will probably lead in due course to the development of the keeping of hens. As usual in South Africa, disease is a serious factor to be guarded against.

The ostrich industry is of great importance, though com- *Ostriches.* paratively young. Young birds were first enclosed in 1857, but not until the use of incubators began in 1869 did they become easier to handle. From 1880-6 there was a boom which ended in a serious setback and heavy losses to the farmers, but since then matters have been steadily prosperous. The value of a first-class bird for breeding purposes is as great as £500, while a common bird may be purchased at from £3 to £4. A good bird will yield from 25 to 32 oz. of feathers, valued at from £2 to £4, at a plucking. The birds are allowed on unirrigated land some twenty acres apiece for feed, but on irrigated land four or five birds may be kept on an acre. The export is forbidden under a penalty of £100 in the case of a bird and £5 in the case of an egg, so determined is South Africa to maintain this most profitable industry.

PART III. Besides horse-sickness South Africa is troubled by other serious stock diseases. Scab attacks both sheep and goats, and not only frequently kills the animals but injures severely the wool and lowers its selling value. In the early years of the Cape efforts to deal with the matter met with a passive resistance from farmers, and only in 1894 was a compulsory Act passed which provided for the keeping by each farmer of a dipping-tank, and the dipping of sheep when infected. Natal provided against disease by compulsory inspection and dipping of all imported sheep, imposing heavy penalties for breach of the regulations; the Transvaal legislated in 1902, and there was also legislation in the Orange Free State. The laws on the subject have been consolidated and strengthened under the Union, while the Government has given assistance towards the supply of dipping-tanks. By effective dipping and by burning the old sheep kraals the disease can be eradicated; while fencing, to which also the Union gives assistance, prevents the reappearance of the disease on a farm, unless infected sheep are introduced from without.

—♦♦—
*Diseases
 of Stock.
 Scab.*

*Rinder-
 pest.*

There is no doubt that scab is gradually becoming less serious, with the realization by farmers of the importance of the matter, in their own interest. More serious is the question of the rinderpest. In 1896-8 all South Africa was ravaged by this disease. It is said to have appeared in 1889 in Somaliland, and to have reached Nyasaland in April, 1892. The cattle in Angoniland were spared, but it spread through the heart of Africa. Wild beasts were attacked as well as oxen and domesticated animals: the buffalo, the koodoo, and eland suffered most of the wild animals, and goats and sheep were less affected than oxen. It crossed the Zambesi early in 1896, and despite efforts to stay its progress in Bechuanaland, which incidentally led to the Bechuanaland outbreak and the revolt of Galishwe, succeeded in penetrating the Cape. Some conception of its destructiveness can be derived from the fact that the number

of cattle in the Cape before the outbreak was said to be CH. III.
 1,639,435, whereas in the middle of 1898 they were re-
 duced to 1,063,571. The expenditure in that period was
 £1,144,000. The disease can now be effectively combated
 by the use of a serum, and the Cape is believed to be free
 from it.

East coast fever remains a serious danger in Natal and Rhodesia, as in East Africa, where it has been exhaustively
East Coast Fever.
 studied by Sir D. Bruce among others. The disease is
 carried by a fly, and is so far incurable, the only possible
 means of meeting the disease being the destruction of all
 infected animals and the disuse of the infected veldt. This
 policy is enforced in Rhodesia for a period of eighteen months,
 grazing being gradually resumed under observation.

Locusts are also a serious danger to farmers. The great
Locusts.
 visitations come from the Kalahari desert, where it is be-
 lieved that they come to life by being hatched out on the rare
 occasions when moisture falls in that arid waste. At the worst
 they may be numerous enough to destroy the whole of the
 crops and leave the stock to die from lack of fodder. In the
 wingless state the 'voetgangers' can be slaughtered whole-
 sale by inducing them to fall into pits in their forward march,
 or their food can be sprayed with a weak solution of arsenite
 of soda, or the eggs can be dug up, but the latter method is
 expensive and unsatisfactory. Happily for the farmers, the
 locust is subject to many enemies which destroy the insects or
 the larva or the egg. The locust question is of some historic
 interest also, as a locust conference in 1907 was one of the
 forerunners of the Union of South Africa.¹

¹ In addition to the Reports of the Departments of Mines and
 Agriculture of the Union, reference has been made to the 1913 edition of
 the *Guide to South and East Africa*, by A. S. Brown and G. G. Brown.
 The laws for the preservation of game will be found in Parl. Papers,
 Cd. 101, 3189, 4472, 5775. See also Selous, *Journal of the African
 Society*, viii. 113-21.

CHAPTER IV

UNION OF SOUTH AFRICA—AGRICULTURE AND LABOUR

§ I. AGRICULTURE

- PART III.** CEREALS are usually sown in the Union a little before the commencement of the rainy season, but this practice is not without exceptions. In the western portion of the Cape the usual time is from April to June, or in the upper plains a month or so later, the harvest commencing in October or November and ending in January or February. In Natal and where the rains fall in summer the sowing is usually effected in the spring, but the practice varies greatly.
- Cereals.*
- Wheat.* Wheat is suited for cultivation throughout the Union. It is extensively cultivated in the south-western and Queenstown divisions of the Cape and in that portion of the Free State known as the conquered territory of Basutoland, a tract three thousand square miles in extent. In some places, as in the neighbourhood of Malmesbury, the yield is disappointing, being only five or six bushels an acre, but in most places it is over the general average of twelve bushels, the Indian average being ten, while the quality of Cape wheat is admirable. Barley is also grown where wheat flourishes, and with equal success.
- Oats.* Oats is perhaps the most universal crop, since it is often cut while tender and sweet, dried and used as forage in place of hay which is not generally satisfactory as a South African crop. But maize is still the chief cereal of South Africa, and its height and foliage combine to render it a striking feature of the landscape. Where fertilizers are
- Maize.*

used the yield is as much as twenty bags an acre, but the average is much lower, say six bags in Natal and four or five in the Transvaal and Free State, due to inexpert farming. The crop is frequently grown as an annual crop, which injures its productivity, and a rotation with beans, ground nuts, potatoes and sweet potatoes is preferable. Maize is largely eaten by the natives at the mines, and is increasingly used for feeding stock. Its export has grown to very large proportions under the stimulus of a low railway rate of a maximum of 10s. a ton for delivery to the vessel for export. The amount exported in 1911 reached 1,016,443 bags of 200 lb. apiece, while in 1910 it was 1,760,208 bags. Rice is in large demand among the Asiatic and native population, but is comparatively little grown owing to lack of water; trial crops in Natal between the Tongaat River and Stanger have shown good results, and the future of the crop seems satisfactory.

Rice.

Sugar was introduced about 1848 into Natal, and has been developed there by the use of Indian indentured labour. The yield per acre is from 2 to 3½ tons of sugar; the cane yields from 11 to 15 per cent. of sugar according to the perfection of the machinery used, and the condition of the cane which yields more when full of sap than when dried. The tops and green leaves of the cane can be used to feed cattle, mules, and horses, and it is hoped to make denatured alcohol for commercial purposes, especially for motor fuel. The crop in 1905 was only 26,078 tons, but in 1911-2 it was roughly 92,000 tons. In Zululand also mills have been erected, and the industry is developing. Though the importation of further labour from India has been prohibited by the Indian Government in view of the difficulty as to the position of British Indians in South Africa, the Asiatic population is so large that there seems no reason to anticipate a shortage of labour in the industry for a considerable time, and labour-saving machinery and improved methods of cultivation are producing a much superior yield.

Sugar.

PART III. Beet sugar has not yet won a substantial position in South Africa, though the beet is said to be rich in sugar, and two crops can be planted annually.

—♦♦—
Beet
Sugar.
Cotton.

Cotton can be grown in parts of the Transvaal, in Swaziland, and possibly in parts of Natal and of Zululand, but the prospects are not sufficiently bright to render development probable in the near future, especially in view of the greater probability of success in Northern Rhodesia, on which the energies of the British Cotton-Growing Association are spent.

Tea. Tea grows excellently in Natal, where it is a staple industry. About 6,000 acres there are under tea as compared with 100,000 under sugar; the yield per acre is about 600 pounds of dried tea, which is better than the yield in Ceylon, and Natal tea is lacking in tannin. The production is insufficient to supply the needs of the Union, and it is protected by a duty of 4*d.* per lb. The tea plant takes about seven years to mature, but it yields at four years of age. The plucking season extends from September to June, while in the three months from June to September the land is hoed and prepared for the coming season. The amount of the produce reached 2,681,000 lb. in 1903, and since that date, though it has not exceeded that figure, it has been each year over two million pounds. The centre of the tea-growing district is Kearsney.

Coffee. Coffee has been grown in Natal, but a succession of bad seasons and insect pests have ruined the industry. In any case, as coffee requires a temperature of from 70 to 100 degrees and a rainfall of 50 to 70 inches, it is better suited for growth in Eastern Africa than in South Africa.

Tobacco. Tobacco, on the other hand, can be cultivated in most parts of the Union. In the Cape the chief centres of the industry are near Oudtshoorn and Swellendam; there is a Government farm on Sunday River where the average return per morgen is 2,500 lb., a figure said to be much

surpassed in some parts. In the Transvaal the best quality is grown near Rustenburg; its flavour is peculiar, but liked by those who have persevered in the trial. The wattle bark also grows widely in the Union, but thrives best in Natal at an elevation of from 1,000 to 3,000 feet. At the end of five to seven years the tree yields from five to twenty tons of bark an acre, and the bark properly cured gives as much as forty per cent. of tannin. The exports have steadily risen from 1907, when 23,839 tons valued at £136,875 were exported, to 41,344 tons valued at £219,433 in 1910.

CH. IV.

Wattle Bark.

The Australian wattle has also flourished in South Africa; one variety, the Silver Wattle, grows freely in shifting sand, and its use has rendered it possible to convert into market gardens the flats near Cape Town, which were at one time unproductive.

Australian Wattle.

Fruit-growing on a commercial scale in South Africa is of modern origin, dating only from 1892, when orchards were planted in the Hex River Valley. Even at the present day the use of orchards is not sufficiently appreciated, and the possibilities of future development are very great. Almost any European fruit can be grown in some part or other of the Union. The more hardy species flourish inland or in the south-west, while on the south-east and along the east coast any tropical varieties can be produced. Of late under Government encouragement societies of fruit-growers have been formed, by which the diseases affecting the trees and kindred subjects are profitably studied and combatted. Considerable profits are already realized; apricot, peach, and prune orchards give profits of from £20 to £30 an acre; raisin grapes, £40 to £50; and olives and oranges £60 to £100. The Union Castle line provides cool storage, enabling fresh fruit to be placed on the English market when it is dearest in England, and grapes, pears, peaches, nectarines, apricots, apples and melons can be landed in excellent condition. Moreover the Government has established a

Fruit-Growing.

PART III. system whereby South African fruit is inspected, graded and forwarded to the Trade Commissioner for the Union in London, by whom it is disposed of to the London trade, which secures the interest of the farmer in the London market. The growth of the trade can be seen from the fact that the amount so exported reached 3,249 tons in 1911 as against 1,013 tons in 1906. The fruit grown for export includes grapes, peaches, apricots, nectarines, plums, gages, pears, apples, quinces, melons, oranges, lemons, pomegranates, grenadillas, figs, tomatoes, pineapples, bananas, which are extensively grown in Natal; olives, which are grown experimentally in the western districts of the Cape; vegetables, including potatoes, peas and beans, &c. Market gardening is very profitable if carried on in the vicinity of the large towns, but railway rates do not permit of its being successful if the produce has to be sent a long way.

Fruit-Preserving. Fruit-preserving is practised at Cape Town, Port Elizabeth, Wellington, Grahamstown, Durban, Pretoria, and a few other places. The kei apple and the Cape gooseberry are among the fruits from which jam is made, and the industry admits of very considerable extension. There is also an industry in the shape of drying fruits, there being a good local market for dried apples, peaches, apricots, raisins, &c., which can stand the cost of railway transport better than larger fresh fruit.

Rubber. Rubber, though it grows wild to a limited extent in Natal, is practically of no importance in the Union, and its cultivation on a large scale will probably be confined to Rhodesia and especially to Northern Rhodesia. There are many other plants which can be grown with more or less success in the Union, and the Cape is well known for the production of the essence, bitter aloes, which is extracted from a plant which grows wild over a great extent of country. Arrowroot, sweet potatoes, ground nuts, cassava and pulse can be grown in parts where there is a high tem-

perature ; rye, beans, buckwheat, peas, turnips, wurzels, &c., CH. IV.
are grown in most parts of the Union.

Pasture in South Africa presents serious difficulties. At *Pasture.*
present the practice of turning on stock haphazard at all times is unsatisfactory, destroying the pasture too quickly and often presenting the cattle with unsuitable food. Pasture can be improved considerably by burning down the long rank herbage, and feeding down the new grass as soon as possible, and by giving pasture rest from time to time. The more even the rainfall the more satisfactory the pasture, and in this respect none of the Union is perhaps equal to parts of Rhodesia, but there is good country in various places in the Union and especially in Natal. Sour grass is found in many parts of the country, as between Fort Beaufort and East London in the Cape ; it is much inferior for pasture to either the sweet veldt or the Karroo, but it becomes sweeter after some years of eating down. Such land also may be planted with the Australian salt bush, which grows readily and reproduces itself in the rains from its own seed. The Karroo bush grows on dry hot plains where the ordinary grass cannot find enough moisture. These plains are covered with many stunted plants which spring to life after the spring rains, and the bush proper, a little grey-green shrub from eight to ten inches high, provides food for many million of sheep long after the sun has burnt it into little more than a dry bunch of twigs. The fertility of the Karroo country is very great, and the provision of irrigation will enormously increase the area available for intensive cultivation.

Wherever water can be obtained the lucerne flourishes *Lucerne.*
extremely well. It is perennial, can be cut several times a year, and is invaluable on an ostrich or stock farm. Prickly pear, which has proved such a troublesome plant in parts of Australia, is valuable owing to its large percentage of water and mineral salts, and serves as a feed for cattle ; four

PART III. tons of prickly pear are reckoned to be equivalent in nutritive qualities to a ton of lucerne, but even in the Union some varieties of prickly pear have proved themselves unmitigated nuisances, and have had to be exterminated. Among new grasses for pasture the Indian doab grass, *Cynodon dactylon*, the cocksfoot, *Dactylis glomerata*, and timothy, *Phleum pratense*, have been recommended, and the former has the advantage that it is also indigenous to South Africa. *Paspalum dilatatum*, which does well in Australia, has been tried, and in Rhodesia has been a distinct success.

Wines.

African wine-growing is an old industry, the vine having been introduced to the Cape in 1653. It is still largely grown in the Cape, especially at the Paarl, Stellenbosch, Worcester, Robertson, Malmesbury, and at the Government experimental vineyard at Constantia. The vine in some cases at least produces with a most remarkable generosity, 600 gallons of wine being said to be produced by a thousand vines, a yield far larger than that usual in France, and still larger than the Australian yield. Various types are produced: a red wine of Burgundy type, the 'Hermitage'; a fine white wine called 'Drakenstein', rather heavier in character than the Rhine wines; and wines of the port, sherry, and pontac types, and the well-known Constantia sweet wines. In the western districts of the Cape the wine-growing industry has played a considerable part in the political history of the country, and it has often been suggested that the preference which before the introduction of free trade was accorded in the United Kingdom to Cape wine should be revived in return for the preference accorded by the South African Customs Union to the mother country. The loss of this preference had a marked effect on the exports; in 1829 they reached the figure of £149,073, representing 1,551,851 gallons, being the maximum attained. In 1856 they still stood at £86,356, representing 723,209 gallons, but after the new system was in full working order the decline was steady

and rapid, the total export in 1866 being £10,997, representing 70,873 gallons; in 1876 £9,418, representing 43,020 gallons; in 1886 £21,570, representing 122,903 gallons; in 1896 £15,465, representing 65,778 gallons; in 1906 only £5,443, representing 22,295 gallons. Since 1906 matters have improved considerably. The Cape Government in that year took the question into serious consideration, and appointed an expert for consultative purposes, established co-operative stores under Government supervision, and equipped them with the most modern methods of fermentation and supplied fresh machinery. The improvement in the price of wine has also been satisfactory; after the imposition of the excise in 1904 wine fell as low as £2 10s. the leaguer (126½ gallons), but by 1909 it ranged from £3 to £9, in 1910 from £3 10s. to £10, and in 1911-12 from £5 to £10.

The Cape also produces excellent brandy, though it is also responsible for cheaper qualities which, commonly known as Cape smoke, are frightfully impure. The excise duty is fixed by Act No. 37 of 1913 at 5s. per proof gallon for wine brandy, 15s. for dop brandy, and 10s. for other brandy; the price for the best distilled brandy, exclusive of the duty, is about 8s. to 10s., for the cheapest 3s. 6d. a gallon.

Phylloxera exists, but has been kept in check. The stock most suited to South African soils is said to be the *Rupestis metallica*, and sandy soil is least favourable to the propagation of the phylloxera. Curiously enough, the vine does not flourish outside the Cape Province. It has been grown in the Transvaal as in Rhodesia, but there it can only be grown on trellises, and, as rains fall when the fruit is ripening, the grapes are not fit for wine making. The excise duty of 6s. a proof gallon was first introduced into the Cape Colony by the Jameson Ministry in 1904, thus bringing the Cape into line with the rest of Africa. The Customs Union provides for an excise on locally produced spirits not exceeding 9s. per proof gallon, with allowances for underproof down to 7s. 6d., while

PART III. the import duty on spirits from outside the Customs Union
—♦— varies from 21s. to 22s. 6d. a gallon.

*The
Forests.*

The main forests of the Union are to be found in the Cape where they cover over five hundred square miles, and in Natal where heavy timber is found over 203,000 acres, and bush and low forest over 1,795,000 acres. In Bechuanaland there has been a considerable destruction of inferior timber for fuel for the mines at Kimberley and for use as mining props, and it is asserted that the rainfall has suffered in consequence or at least that the perennial springs have yielded less water since the denudation. Planting around Johannesburg has been said to have had a good effect on the climate. As has been seen above, the importance of protection of forests is now fully appreciated in the Union; a comprehensive Act No. 19 of 1913 has repealed and consolidated the old legislation, and the Government have taken steps to prevent further needless destruction of trees.

Species.

In all some sixty-three indigenous trees in the Union are accorded protection, and of these twenty-two yield timber suited for commercial use. The upright yellow wood and the Outeniqua yellow wood grow mainly in the Cape: they are free from knots and are largely used for railway sleepers, beams, boarding, &c. Stink wood is a species of laurel, which grows freely in the Cape and Natal and serves for wagon building and to a less degree for high-class furniture. Sneezewood, which owes its name to a peculiar smell which is believed to induce sneezing but which passes quickly away, is practically impenetrable even by the *teredo* and is much used for marine structures. Assegai wood and white pear wood are used in the making of wheels and especially for the making of the spokes and the felloes respectively. The oak grows much more quickly than in Europe, and serves the useful purpose of stopping the progress of forest fires: it is therefore often planted in belts through a forest: its wood is, however, little used save for firewood. The wattle is

commonly found, and the pine is found on Table Mountain as well as elsewhere. Eucalyptus trees grow rapidly, and yield valuable timber. CH. IV. —♦—

The greatest demand for timber for industrial purposes is that for railway sleepers, which is met in great measure by the Government and private factories in the Knysna forest district, near King William's Town in the Pirie Forest, and at the Kar Kloof Falls near Howick in Natal: the local supply is supplemented from Australia and elsewhere.

Irrigation is a matter which directly affects the Union *Irrigation.* Government and is of vital importance for the development of the whole of South Africa. In 1901 Sir W. Willcocks estimated that in the Cape, the Orange Free State and the Transvaal some three million acres could be made available for farming for a cost of £30,000,000, increasing the value of the land from practically nil to £100,000,000. More cautious estimates in detail for the possibilities of irrigation in the Cape were drawn up by the Director of Irrigation in a report for 1907, and in a paper read before the First South African Irrigation Congress held at Robertson in May, 1909, and printed in the Cape Parliamentary Papers for that year. Steady progress was then being made by the Cape Government, 100,000 acres being put under irrigation in the years 1907-9, while it was calculated that in 1911 the efforts of the Union Department added 77,000 acres to the area. In the north-west of the Cape wheat can be profitably grown under irrigation, but in the south-west, south, and midlands the main use of irrigated lands is for the growing of lucerne.

For purposes of irrigation water may be supplied either *Methods of Irrigation.* by utilizing subterranean supplies, or by catching and preserving the rain in dams, or by drawing supplies from the rivers. Boring for water in the Cape was begun systematically by the Government from 1894 to 1907, by which time a boring industry had been developed employing some *Boring.* hundred contractors. For some two years previous to the

PART III. war the Free State undertook boring, and this was continued by the Government, on a reduced scale as compared with the Cape, until 1909. In 1904 a boring branch of the Transvaal Irrigation Department was instituted, and by 1910 it had bored some 1,150 boreholes yielding nearly 24,000,000 gallons of water a day. The whole work is now concentrated in the hands of the Union Irrigation Department, which owns sixty-four bores and lends them out in prescribed districts, at a cost of £4 a day, to farmers in cases where contractors cannot undertake the work. In 1911 five hundred boreholes yielded nine and a quarter million gallons of water. Water was also obtained in this way for schools, hospitals, experimental farms, jails, police posts, and railway stations. Recently, too, experiments in the Northern Transvaal and in Bechuanaland have shown that these arid tracts contain large quantities of subterranean water. The water so tapped usually rises well within reach of a deep well pump, and in some cases it even overflows.

Dams.

Irrigation by means of dams may be carried on in two ways. Advantage may be taken of the contour of the land, or the flood waters of intermittent streams may be retained by damming. At Van Wyk's Vley in the Carnarvon district there is a dam with a catchment area of nineteen miles and an average depth of ten feet, capable of holding when full 35,000,000,000 gallons: unhappily the catchment area in this case is inadequate to fill the dam, which has never been fuller than nineteen feet as against a possible top-water level of twenty-five feet. The largest dam in South Africa is that on the farms of the Smarut Syndicate, Limited, in the Britstown division, which has a capacity of four thousand million cubic feet, the dam being 1,640 feet long at the crest and its greatest height 60 feet, irrigating an area of 9,000 acres. The Sauerdale dam on the Matopos farm of the late Mr. Rhodes can hold nearly a thousand million gallons, and irrigates two thousand acres all the year round. The

evaporation in the Union amounts to about five feet a year at heights not exceeding 1,000 feet above the sea, but in the dry interior it may reach about seven feet a year. The possibilities of irrigation are almost unlimited.

CH. IV.

Irrigation by pumping water from streams is also practised, and is found to be cheap and effective when a suction gas engine is used. The profits of successful irrigation are seen by the case of Graaff Reinet, where irrigated land sells at £200 a morgen as compared with the price of 25s. for unirrigated land.

The policy of the Government of the Union includes the carrying out of hydrographic surveys to investigate all possible sources of water-supply, the making of systematic reconnaissance surveys so as to discover all the possibilities for the construction of new irrigation works, the giving of advice as to irrigation to farmers, the grant of loans to assist in carrying out such works, and the actual carrying out of irrigation works. The whole situation is regulated by Act No. 8 of 1912, which defines the rights in water possessed by riparian owners and provides an elaborate code intended to secure the co-operation of owners in irrigation schemes, and in the conservation and better utilization of existing water-supplies.

*Policy of
the Union
Govern-
ment.*

At the same time the Government has not neglected the question of dry farming, the importance of which to South Africa is being more and more realized as experience shows its success in California, in Australia, and in Canada. Experiments have been conducted on the Government farm at Lichtenburg in the Transvaal, and have shown that in this system the soil seed-bed can be kept moist throughout the year, thus allowing a crop to be sown at any time. It has also been found that a good crop of dry-land winter wheat can be grown before the season of rust, that potatoes grow more favourably in this way even than under irrigation, and that hard wheats such as flourish in the arid western regions

*Dry
Farming.*

PART III. of North America are the most effective. A Conference was
 —♦♦— held to discuss the matter at Pretoria in 1911, and the vital importance of the whole matter is now receiving, together with irrigation, the full attention which it deserves.

The Land Bank.

Aid to agriculture is also provided by the Land Bank established by a Union Act No. 18 of 1912, which supersedes the existing Land Banks of the four Provinces. Advances for improvements of all kinds are granted on reasonable terms by the Bank, and its services have been of the greatest assistance in enabling farmers to adopt new methods of cultivation.

§ 2. LABOUR

Slave Labour.

Common to the whole of the Union is the difficulty with regard to labour. The early society of the Cape under Dutch rule, and for a time under British rule, was essentially based on the fact that the farmers could command slave labour. The freeing of the slaves in 1834 had consequences in the Boer treks which have vitally affected all South African history, and undoubtedly the change long retarded the agricultural development of the country and favoured pastoral farming. It is clearly not a tempting prospect to cultivate crops when at harvest the native hands may go off to their kraals and leave the crops rotting in the ground. It was therefore in the Orange Free State before the days of British government, that the greatest progress was made in the production of grain. Natal also has in a way solved the problem by the introduction of indentured Indians, who have created her wealth in sugar, tea, and other plantations of semitropical growths.

Position of the Native.

The native of South Africa is at present exempt from any great pressure upon the means of subsistence. The result of the Pax Britannica in reducing tribal warfare to nil and in diminishing pestilence and famine has indeed increased the population, but not at such a rate as yet to press hardly on the available land. It is of course easy to talk of the dignity

of labour, but it cannot be expected to appeal to natives whose ancestors have never believed in the doctrine, and who have been able to select the most fertile portions of a country which is rich in game and which yields easily enough the minima of life, in a climate which renders shelter and clothing for the greater part of the year of very small consequence.

It is further usually asserted that the native, confining his energies to cattle tending and hunting, leaves all the agricultural and house work to his wives, and that the only motive to induce him to do a modicum of work is the desire to purchase a wife and so secure himself from further work for the term of her or their lives. There is little doubt that this is an exaggerated picture, and that in the agricultural life of the tribes there is plenty of really hard work to do and that the men do their fair share of it; doubtless there is much waste of time and energy, doubtless too the native has no desire to do more work than is essential, but mere idleness hardly seems proved against him. There is, too, evidence that his desire to rise in the social scale, and thus to increase his wants, is steadily increasing. It is impossible in the absence of any reliable data to say to what extent he contributes towards the consumption of dutiable goods, but, whereas the Native Affairs Commission of 1903-5 estimated the contribution of the natives in this regard as only 2*s.* a head, an excellent authority quoted by Sir R. Sothorn Holland in his report on South African trade for 1911 estimated the figure at 3*s.* 6*d.* a head, and there is satisfactory reason to suppose that this calculation represents a gradual improvement in the native's social position and mode of life. It must be remembered that he has much to contend with in any desire to rise in position, and that the communal condition in South Africa, as in India, if it enables the country to dispense with a system of poor relief, none the less renders wealth impossible for the individual and hampers his develop-

PART III. ment at every turn. Nor is there any direct stimulus to labour. The hut tax or some equivalent tax has now been accepted as right and proper throughout South Africa, but as it is never absolutely high, the stimulus which it affords is not very great. The Glen Grey Act passed by Mr. Rhodes's Ministry in 1894 required every adult native in certain reserves, who was not an holder of land either under quit-rent or in freehold, to work three months a year outside his district or pay 10s. to the revenue, but this is after all not a very effective means of inducing work. More effective undoubtedly is the native custom called 'lobola', under which a would-be son-in-law presents his father-in-law with cattle, which the latter retains so long as the marriage subsists, in return for continuing to keep a friendly eye on the newly married pair. The native normally gives the present in cattle which he has worked to earn.

*Pressure
of Mines.*

The shortage of labour is also accentuated by the large demands made by the mines on the native population. The Union itself is quite unable to supply men enough to make up the numbers required for the mines of the Transvaal and the diamond mines, and many have to be brought in over the Portuguese border, operations being facilitated by the agreement with Mozambique which the Governor of the Transvaal made with the sanction of the Imperial Government in 1909. Other natives used to come from beyond the limits of the Union from Central Africa, and the question of the Nyasaland native has occupied the serious attention of successive Secretaries of State. The mortality among these natives is extremely high, and their native country is badly in need of their services, reasons which tell in favour of preventing their visiting the mines at all. On the other hand it is physically impracticable to prevent their leaving the country for the purpose, and that consideration weighed in favour of permitting their departure only under conditions which are intended to secure their safe arrival at the mines and their careful treatment especially to

ward off pulmonary diseases while they are there.¹ Since 1912, however, recruiting in Nyasaland has been stopped, and in 1913 the Union Government decided to forbid the introduction of labourers from north of 22° south latitude. CH. IV. —♦—

The wages paid in the mines are on the whole higher *Wages.* than those paid for agricultural work. The mining labourer receives in Natal, adding the cost of food and lodging with which he is supplied by his employer, about 35s. a month, in the Transvaal and at Kimberley 45s. to 100s., and in the Free State 45s. to 60s. The corresponding remuneration of the agricultural labourer is in the Cape 47s. 6d. to 65s., in Natal 16s. to 40s., in the Transvaal 20s. to 50s., and in the Free State 20s. to 55s. None the less agricultural work is on the whole preferred by the average native, though this rule is not without exceptions, and some authorities lay stress on the society of others and the greater chances of amusement which are given to the native at the mines. In the Cape the main source of supply of labour is Tembuland, Griqualand East and Herschel, though the labour is of a poor quality. In other parts the supply is either barely sufficient or totally inadequate for the average needs.

Unhappily the presence of natives and the tradition of *White Labour.* slave labour has established society in South Africa on an aristocratic basis, in so far as the white man believes that he must supervise rather than work himself. This attitude of mind spreads at once to new-comers save in a few cases: thus the Germans have always distinguished themselves by their readiness, men and women alike, to work with their hands on the land which they have taken up, a thing which the poorer Boers think beneath their dignity to do. The great difficulty as regards the position of the British Indian in the country arises precisely from this cause, because as petty trader he usurps one of the very limited number of functions

¹ See Parl. Papers, Cd. 1531, 1950, 3993.

PART III. which are available to the white man, and a function which
—♦— does not come naturally to the native.

Domestics. Serious difficulty to white settlement in South Africa arises also from the question of domestic servants. In the Cape Province the majority are coloured women, of no great accomplishments or trustworthiness, but in the rest of the Union the house servant is usually a native 'boy', a state of affairs which is admittedly unsatisfactory, which has often been condemned, and which various efforts have been made to mitigate.

Skilled Trades. The white labour problem is further complicated by the fact that in skilled trades, where the Kaffir as yet plays a comparatively humble part, there are other and more serious competitors. Large numbers of Malays, and other coloured men in all parts of the country, compete with whites as skilled mechanics on lower wages. At Cape Town the shoemaking and tailoring trades are largely in the hands of Malays and foreigners. Many blacksmiths in all parts of the Union are coloured men, as are also large numbers of stone cutters, bricklayers, plasterers, brickmakers, navvies, gardeners, coachmen, upholsterers, harness makers, &c. Nor is there any doubt that experiments with white labour on a large scale have not altogether been a success. One of Lord Milner's experiments during the period of railway construction was the importation of a large number of men for railway construction, but it was found necessary to terminate their employment very suddenly, as their work after a good beginning had, from whatever cause, failed to maintain a reasonable level of efficiency and economy, while of course their pay was far above the standard for similar work by natives.

Immigration. In face of these difficulties it is not surprising that the Government of the Union of South Africa has been unable to adopt any plan of immigration on a large scale. The only direct assistance in 1913 granted by the Union Government took the form of reduced passages to the wives and

families, excluding males over eighteen years of age, of British subjects permanently established in the Union whose means would not permit of their being rejoined by their families without the aid of the Government. A Government Labour Bureau at Cape Town, with branches at Johannesburg, Port Elizabeth, and East London, aids seekers for employment. The Immigration Act of the Union passed in 1913 effectively excludes from South Africa immigrants suffering from dangerous or loathsome diseases, persons mentally unsound, criminals, and all persons who are likely to become a charge upon public revenues.¹

CH. IV.
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¹ Full details of agriculture are given in the annual reports of the Union Department of Agriculture, which publishes also reports on Irrigation and other special topics. There is a useful summary in the *Guide to South and East Africa*, 1913, and some information of value is also given in the *Handbook of the Emigrants' Information Office* dealing with the Union. In 1909 Lord Blyth visited South Africa and reported to the Colonial Office on agriculture and viticulture; see Parl. Paper, Cd. 4909.

Information as to Labour is given in the annual reports of the Union Department of Mines and in the *Handbook*. For the serious disturbances of July, 1913, at Johannesburg, due to industrial unrest, see Parl. Papers, Cd. 6941, 6942.

CHAPTER V

THE CAPE OF GOOD HOPE

PART III. *The Boundaries.* THE boundaries of the Cape of Good Hope were not defined in the Treaty of August 13, 1814, by which that territory finally passed from the possession of the Dutch. After the Kaffir War of 1834 a Proclamation was issued by the Governor, declaring the eastern boundary to be a line drawn from the source of the Kei River in the Stormberg Mountains along that river to the sea. Another Proclamation of October 14, 1835, declared that the north-eastern boundary of the Cape was from the source of the Kei River north to the source of the Kraai River, then along that river to its confluence with the Orange River, and down the Orange River to its confluence with the Stormberg River, hitherto the boundary of the Colony. These new eastern and north-eastern boundaries were, however, annulled by the Proclamation of December 5, 1836, and, on the same date, new treaties with the chiefs of the tribes of the Congo, Gaika and T'Slambie, defined the boundaries. The boundaries now fixed were those settled by the Colonial Government with the chief Gaika after the war of 1818-19: the line ran along the Keiskamma River and the course of the Chumie until it reached the spurs of the Waterberg and Amatola Mountains. The effect of the retrocession of 1836 was, however, undone by Sir Harry Smith in 1847 after the Kaffir War of 1846. By a Proclamation of December 17, 1847, the boundary of the Colony was proclaimed to be the Keiskamma and Chumie Rivers, thence a line from the source of the Chumie to the source of the Kraai, the Kraai from its source to its junction

with the Orange River, and thence the Orange River as far as the Atlantic Ocean. On December 23, 1847, the territory between the new eastern boundary of the Colony and the Kei River was declared British territory. With some minor alterations of boundary in 1854 and 1860 it was administered as a separate Colony until 1865, when it was annexed to the Cape.

An important acquisition of territory was made on October 11, 1879, when under the authority of Letters Patent of June 12, 1876, and in consequence of the passing of Cape Act No. 38 of 1877, the territories known as Fingoland, lying between the Bashee and the Kei, the Idutywa reserve and 'Nomansland', lying between the Umtata and the Umzimkulu, were annexed to the Cape. On July 17, 1878, the chief Nquiliso agreed to transfer to the Cape Government all his rights of sovereignty over the waters and navigation of the river Umzimkulu, in return for being aided against the rebellious Umquikela. This was followed on September 4, 1878, by a Proclamation of the High Commissioner which deposed Umquikela from the chieftainship of the Pondo people as a whole, and annexed the port and tidal estuary of the St. John's River to the British Crown. This Proclamation was approved on February 13, 1879, and Letters Patent of October 10, 1881, authorized annexation to the Cape on the passing of an Act for the government of the territory so annexed, and this Act was passed on July 22, 1884. In 1885 an Act of the Cape was passed for the annexation under the authority of Letters Patent of October 2, 1884, of the territories in the Transkei, known as Tembuland, Emigrant Tembuland, Bomvanaland, and Galekaland, of which the Governor of the Cape had been Governor since 1881. On January 5, 1885, a British Protectorate over the whole coast of Pondoland was announced as existing. Under Letters Patent of August 23, 1886, and under a Colonial Act the Xesibe country between Griqualand East and Pondoland was annexed, and on December 9 of that year, a fresh agreement

PART III. with Umquikela secured the territory known as the Rode territory, situated between the districts of Mount Ayliff, Mount Frere, East Griqualand, and Eastern Pondoland. This territory was duly annexed to the Cape under authority of Letters Patent of July 29, 1887, and Cape Act No. 45 of 1887. On March 20, 1894, the High Commissioner notified the annexation of Pondoland, and that annexation was duly authorized by Letters Patent of June 7, 1894.

Griqualand West, which had been annexed in 1871 on the request of the chiefs and had been administered as a separate Colony, was annexed to the Cape on October 15, 1880, under the authority of Cape Act No. 39 of 1877, which was approved by Order in Council of February 22, 1878.

*Bechuana-
land.*

On May 3 and 22, 1884, the chiefs of the Batlapings and the Baralongs conferred by treaty jurisdiction over their country on Great Britain. In consequence of this, a Proclamation was issued on September 30, 1885, by the High Commissioner for South Africa, in which he intimated the existence of a Protectorate over the parts known as Bechuanaland and the Kalahari, and declared the territory bounded on the east by the South African Republic, on the south by Cape Colony, on the west by the Molopo River, and on the north by that river to its junction with the Ramathlabama Spruit, and thence by the spruit to the frontier of the South African Republic, to be British territory under the name of British Bechuanaland. A Commission of September 29, 1885, appointed the Governor of the Cape to be also Governor of British Bechuanaland, while an Order in Council of January 27, 1885, made provision for the exercise of jurisdiction over Bechuanaland and the Kalahari. On May 8, 1891, the High Commissioner annexed the territory of the Bastards to Bechuanaland, and the boundaries of British Bechuanaland as thus extended were declared by a Commission of July 1, 1895, and by the Order in Council of October 3, 1895, authorizing the annexation of the territory

to the Cape under the Cape Act No. 41 of 1895, to be as follows:—On the east the South African Republic; on the south, Cape Colony; on the west, the 20th degree east longitude up to the point of intersection with the Nosop or Oup River, and on the north by that river to its junction with the Molopo River, and thence by that river to its junction with the Ramathlabama Spruit, and along that spruit to the boundary of the South African Republic. This area still remains a special area, in which the government is regulated by the agreement entered into in 1895 by the Colonial and Imperial Governments, the obligations of which have of course passed to the Government of the Union of South Africa with the control of native affairs.¹

On the north and west the Cape runs with German territory. *Walfisch*
On March 12, 1878, the Commander of H.M.S. *Industry* took *Bay*.
possession, in the name of the Queen, of the Port of Walfisch Bay. In his Proclamation of Annexation the territory was defined on the south by a line from a point on the coast fifteen miles south of Pelican Point to Scheppmansdorf; on the east by a line from Scheppmansdorf to the Rooibank, including the plateau, and thence to ten miles inland from the mouth of the Swakop River, and on the north by the last ten miles of the course of that river. The Proclamation was confirmed by Letters Patent of December 14, 1878, and in 1884 the territory was annexed to the Cape under the terms of Cape Act No. 35 of 1884. The annexation of further portions of the territory was in contemplation, but the Imperial Government made it a condition of annexation that the Cape Government and Parliament should make provision for undertaking the administration of the territory, and in the meantime, before the Cape Government could make up its mind to accept the proposed responsibility, the German Government intervened and annexed the whole coast from 26° south latitude to Walfisch Bay, and thence to Cape Frio.

¹ See Parl. Paper, Cd. 7932.

PART III. The boundary-line of the Cape on the north-west was definitively settled by the agreement of July 1, 1890, as the north bank of the Orange River to the point of intersection with the 20th degree of east longitude, but the exact course has not yet been finally delimited, and owing to the unstable condition of the river, the north bank is not altogether easy to define.

—♦♦—
*The
 Orange
 River
 Boundary.*

*The Coast
 Islands.*

Off the coast certain small islands, Ichaboe and the Penguin group, were annexed in 1861 by the Governor of the Cape, but the proclamation was disallowed. In 1866, however, these islands were by proclamation declared to be part of the Cape, and Letters Patent of February, 27, 1867, made the Governor of the Cape Governor of the islands and authorized their annexation to the Cape, if desired by the Parliament of the Cape. In 1874 the islands were accordingly annexed to the Cape under the authority of the Letters Patent and an Act of the Cape Parliament. The international position of these islands was recognized by the German Government in an exchange of notes of October 23 and November 13, 1886, accepting a protocol of July 15, 1886, for the disposal of certain claims of British subjects in German South-West Africa. Under that protocol it was agreed by the German Government, in return for the relinquishment by the British Government of any claim to Shark Island and some other islets, that the German Government would not confer any private rights over the relinquished islands other than to those persons who from time to time might be the lessees of the twelve British islands named in the Letters Patent of 1867, viz. Ichaboe, Hollansbird, Mercury, Long Island, Seal Island, Penguin Island, Halifax, Possession Island, Albatross Rock, Pomona, Plum Pudding and Roast Beef Islands.

*The Wal-
 fisch Bay
 Arbitra-
 tion.*

The treaty of 1890 expressly left unsettled the position of the southern boundary of Walfisch Bay, which it left to be settled by arbitration if no agreement could be arrived at in two years. It was found impossible to settle the matter diplomatically, and the question was in 1909 referred to the

settlement of a Portuguese jurist selected by the King of Portugal. The main point at issue was whether or not it was intended in the annexation, the effect of which was not denied, to include a fertile piece of land between the mission station at Scheppmansdorf and Ururas. It was contended by the British that the term plateau used in the notification of annexation covered the case of a plain, which, though not actually elevated above the surrounding country, appeared to dominate the sandy hills to the south and the Namib desert to the north of it. On the German side it was contended that the term plateau must refer to the Namib desert, which was actually higher than the territory claimed by Great Britain. The British argument relied also on the fact that the land in dispute had been surveyed and marked as British by Mr. Wrey under instructions from the Cape Government, and that the land had been regularly used in connexion with the mission station. The arbitrator found that the survey of Mr. Wrey was in no sense binding on the German Government in itself, but that it correctly delimited the boundaries of the territory as described in the Letters Patent.¹

The total area of the Cape Province, including British *Area.* Bechuanaland, is estimated at 276,995 square miles, of which British Bechuanaland includes 51,524, the Transkei 18,181, and Walfisch Bay, 430. It is more than twice as large as the United Kingdom, larger than Austria and Hungary, smaller than Sweden and Norway. As compared with the Australian States, it comes nearest in size to New South Wales, but is not so large as that State. Its greatest breadth in a straight line east and west is about 750 statute miles, its greatest length in a straight line north and south is about 600 statute miles. Its westernmost point on the continuous coastline,² viz. the mouth of the Orange River, is in 16° 27' east longitude; its easternmost point, the mouth of the Umtam-

¹ See Parl. Paper, Cd. 5857.

² The outlying settlement of Walfisch Bay is further west.

PART III. vuna River, is in $30^{\circ} 10'$ east longitude. Its southernmost extremity, Cape Agulhas, is in $34^{\circ} 50'$ south latitude; its northern boundary, the Molopo River and the Ramathlabana Spruit, touches a point which lies in about $25^{\circ} 38'$ degrees of south latitude.

*Natural
Features.*

Viewed from the outside, the Cape Province, with a very long extent of coast-line, facing west, south, and east, is curiously inaccessible. Its shores, taken as a whole, are little indented, and are deficient in natural harbours, in estuaries of navigable rivers. The western side of South Africa is especially unbroken and harbourless.

*Walfisch
Bay.*

One of the few inlets on this side of any value is Walfisch or Walwich Bay, in 23° south latitude, within the tropics, and between seven and eight hundred miles from Capetown. It has borne its name of Whale Bay ever since Portuguese times, and was little visited except by whalers and other fishing-vessels until the Rhenish missionaries in the present century began their work in South-Western Africa. It is still under a Colonial Act of 1884, a detached part of the Cape Province, in charge of a Resident Magistrate.

A low sandy peninsula, ending in Pelican Point, runs northward for four miles or more, and between this peninsula and the mainland, facing north, is the Bay, of horseshoe shape, between three and four miles wide at the entrance, affording a safe and sheltered anchorage. At the south-east end of the bay, on the mainland, is the settlement, consisting of a few traders' stores and a mission station. The country round is a succession of barren sand-hills, except on the south-east, where, at a distance of from thirteen to eighteen miles from the coast, there is water and good pasturage. The total area of British territory round the bay, lying in the midst of the German Protectorate, is about forty miles in length north and south, with a depth inland not exceeding twenty miles in a direct line from the sea. As the one harbour on a long expanse of coast, and as a starting-

point for the interior, Walfisch Bay has undoubted value, but in itself it is a desolate possession, surrounded by desert and far removed from the centres of civilization. In 1911, according to the census returns, the population of the district numbered 637, mostly of Hottentot race, the white residents being only thirty-two. The inner lagoon at the end of the bay is a good fishing-ground, and a considerable amount of trade with the natives passes through the port. The chief articles of export some years ago were ivory and ostrich feathers, but at the present day the wealth of the inland tribes mainly consists in cattle.

North of Walfisch Bay the coast of Damaraland, south of it the coast of Great Namaqualand, belong to Germany; but as has already been stated there are some islets, about a dozen in number, lying off the latter coast which are owned by the Cape Province. These are the Island of Ichaboe and the Penguin Islands, valuable for the guano which is collected on them. *The Islands.*

At the mouth of the Orange River, in $28^{\circ} 38'$ south latitude, *The Orange River.* begins the continuous coast-line of the Cape Province. Barred by banks of sand, the river cannot be entered from the sea, and the greatest waterway of the South African peninsula is, for purposes of navigation, absolutely useless. Six miles to the south is the historic Cape Voltas, the cape of turns, so named by the Portuguese sailor Diaz, the discoverer of the Cape, as he trimmed his sails to the changing winds; and fifty miles from the Orange River is Port Nolloth¹ or Robbe Bay, the place of outlet for the copper-bearing districts of Namaqualand, distant by sea 300 miles from Capetown. There is a little town at Port Nolloth, and from the port a mineral railway, on a 2 ft. 6 in. gauge, owned by the Cape Copper Mining Company, runs inland for ninety-two miles to the famous copper mines at Ookiep.

¹ Called after Commander M. S. Nolloth, of H.M.S. *Frolic*, who reported on this coast in 1854.

PART III. Below Port Nolloth the barren sandy coast stretches south-east for more than 200 miles, past the mouth of the Olifants, or Elephants River, closed like other South African rivers by a bar of sand, until, in the neighbourhood of St. Helena Bay, the beach and sand-hills are but an outer fringe to good corn-growing and grazing country inland. St. Helena Bay is a semi-circular indentation in the coast, with a diameter of more than thirty miles from Cape Descada on the north to Cape St. Martin on the south. It receives the waters of the Berg River, flowing from some of the richest and earliest settled districts of the colony, but no settlement of any size is on its shores, and no port attracts trade to this section of the coast. Cape St. Martin is in $32^{\circ} 43'$ south latitude, and between twenty and thirty miles due south of this cape is Saldanha Bay, more noted in the early days of the Cape Colony than at the present time. Saldanha Bay is a fine natural harbour, the finest on the south-western coast of Africa; but it is out of the way, at an inconvenient distance from the main centres of the province, and the supply of fresh water is not so plentiful as at other ports, but this defect has been in part rectified by the bringing of water from the Berg River. Langebaan, at the southern end of the Bay, is a rising summer resort.

From Saldanha Bay the coast runs sharply to the south-east as far as Cape Agulhas, and midway between the two points is the Cape peninsula, bounded on the north by Table Bay. Table Bay is nearly sixty miles distant from Saldanha Bay, and five miles north of its entrance is Robben (Seal) Island,—flat, low-lying, nearly two miles in length by one in breadth, noted in the annals of the colony from the earliest times as a state prison, and now the scene of a lunatic asylum and a leper establishment.

Table Bay. Table Bay, with Capetown on its shores and Table Mountain for its background, is one of the well-known scenes of the world, told of in many books, depicted by

many hands. Facing due north, the bay looks towards those northern lands from which European colonists, now in countless numbers, have for two centuries and a half landed on its shores ; and the small Dutch settlement which Van Riebeeck founded has become a large and growing city. The mouth of the bay is four miles wide between the mainland on the east, and on the west Mouillé Point and Green Point which form the northernmost extremity of the Cape peninsula. Semi-circular in shape, large and commodious, Table Bay has been, and is still being made, by means of breakwaters and harbour works, comparatively safe for shipping ; but naturally the anchorage is dangerous and exposed to the north-western gales which blow more especially in the winter time from May to November, and to the south-eastern winds which in summer come driving down through the gaps past Table Mountain.

In the bend of the bay, on its western and south-western *Capetown.* shores, stands Capetown, with Table Mountain towering above it. Its suburbs run north on the western side of the bay to Green Point and Sea Point, and, in the opposite direction, circling east round the northern end of the mountain-range which forms the backbone of the Cape peninsula, turn southward down that peninsula at the back of the mountains towards False Bay. In this direction there is a railway connecting Table Bay and Simons Bay, leaving the main line at Salt River junction two miles out of Capetown, running southward through Rondebosch, Wynberg, past the outskirts of the Constantia district, to Muizenberg, Kalk Bay, and eventually to Simonstown on the shores of Simons Bay, about twenty-three miles by rail from Capetown.

All these places are within the Cape peninsula, the rugged *The Cape* mountainous promontory which runs south and south-east *Peninsula.* for over thirty miles, and ends in the Cape of Good Hope. Simons Bay is an inlet of False Bay, which latter bay bounds

PART III. the Cape peninsula on the east and south, as Table Bay
 —♦♦— bounds it on the north. False Bay is far larger than Table Bay. In shape it is three parts of a circle, facing south, as the other bay faces north, with an entrance sixteen miles wide and a depth inland of eighteen miles. Eleven miles north of the entrance, in a corner of its western shore, is Simons Bay, safeguarded by a projecting point of land from the south-easterly gales, which blow straight into False Bay. Here, in a haven more favoured by nature than Table Bay, is the Imperial coaling station for South Africa.

The census of 1911 gave Capetown a population of 67,159; but, if the suburbs be included, the population at the present day must be over 162,000. It may be considered as a town with a double harbour, for Simons Bay is for practical purposes a port of Capetown. Taking a very rough estimate of distances in statute miles, on the western side it is nearly 6,800 miles distant from Plymouth, over 3,000 miles from Sierra Leone, under 2,100 from the Congo, nearly 2,000 from St. Helena, 2,750 from Ascension, 3,730 from Rio Janeiro, 4,140 from Montevideo. On the eastern side it is 930 miles from Durban, under 2,800 from Zanzibar, 5,300 from Bombay, 2,600 from Mauritius, and 5,600 miles from King George's Sound.

*Cape
Agulhas.*

From False Bay the coast runs south-east as far as Cape Agulhas, the southernmost point of Africa, in about $34^{\circ} 50'$ south latitude and 20 degrees east longitude. Beyond this cape the direction of the coast-line is a little north of east. The mouth of the Breede River is passed, Gauritz River, Flesh and Fish Bays, known to the earliest explorers; and round Cape St. Blaize lies Mossel Bay, about 240 miles from Capetown, a port of some importance as an outlet for the central coast districts of the colony, sheltered from the westerly gales but exposed to the south-east. Beyond Mossel Bay is the harbour formed by the mouth of the Knysna River, entered between cliffs on either side, and over

*Mossel
Bay.*

a double bar. Safe and landlocked, the harbour is accessible only to small vessels, chiefly engaged in the timber trade, for the Knysna district is in the forest region of the Cape Colony.

Further to the east, past Plettenberg Bay, Cape St. Francis, *Algoa Bay.* and the mouth of the Gamtoos River, the lighthouse on Cape Recife marks the western end of Algoa Bay, its easternmost point being Woody Cape, and the distance between the two points being between thirty and forty miles. A rocky islet in the bay was the furthest point reached by the Portuguese voyager, Bartholomew Diaz, on the first memorable voyage round the Cape of Good Hope. Here he set up a cross, before turning reluctantly homewards, and the rock still bears the name of St. Croix. On the south-western shores of the bay is Port Elizabeth¹, about 436 miles distant from *Port* Capetown, and 200 miles from Mossel Bay. *Elizabeth.* Port Elizabeth with its suburbs in 1911 contained over 37,000 inhabitants. It is the port and chief town of the eastern districts of the Cape Province, and in point of shipping it is now the second seaport in the Province, Capetown taking the first place, and East London the third. The anchorage is good though exposed, as is the case with most of these southern bays, to the south-east winds, and there is good railway communication with the interior. The growing importance of Port Elizabeth is due not merely to the fact that it is the outlet of pastoral and agricultural districts which year by year are better developed, but still more to its geographical position in relation to the territories further inland. The route from this port to the Transvaal gold-fields is shorter and more direct than the journey from Capetown. Capetown is the historic capital, the mother town of the Cape Province, but Port Elizabeth, more specially connected with British settlement, is geographically the central landing-place for South Africa.

From Algoa Bay onward the coast turns more and more

¹ The town is named after the wife of the Acting-Governor, Sir R. Donkin, at the time of the settlement in 1820.

PART III. to the north-east. About eighty miles beyond Port Elizabeth is Port Alfred at the mouth of the Kowie River, flowing down from Grahamstown, between thirty and forty miles inland; and about seventy miles further on, past the mouths of the Great Fish River and the Keiskamma, is the third seaport of the Colony, East London, at the opening of the Buffalo River, 130 miles from Port Elizabeth, 250 miles from Durban. The drawback to this port has been the sand bar at the mouth of the river, but by artificial means, by dredging and constructing training walls, the channel has been deepened and the harbour made available for larger ships than formerly. The town, whose population in 1911 was just over 24,600, stands on the southern bank of the river, about forty miles south-east of King Williamstown, an inland town also on the banks of the Buffalo River. The districts which more immediately feed the port, lying between the Great Fish River and the Kei, were not so many years ago troubled border districts, the scene of many Kaffir wars and of German settlement; but East London is not dependent on them alone, for, passing through Queenstown, the railway is now carried on to the Transvaal gold-fields, to which the route from East London is in mileage shorter than that from Port Elizabeth.

*The
Transkei.*

Between thirty and forty miles beyond East London the Kei River falls into the sea, beyond which, as far as the boundary of Natal, is the coast-line of the Transkei Territories and Pondoland, all of which now forms an integral part of the Cape Province. From the Kei to the Umtamvuna, the river which forms the southern boundary of Natal, the land runs in a direct north-easterly direction for 150 miles. Various rivers come down to the sea on this section of the coast, among others the Bashee and the Umtata, but the only harbour to be noticed, and that at present a very small one, is Port St. John's at the mouth of the Umzimvubu river, which, at a distance of less than two miles from the sea, flows through

a mountain gorge with cliffs 1,200 feet high. These cliffs are well known as the Gates of St. John, and at no point on the South African coast is the scenery so strikingly picturesque. It is expected that the railway from Omabile Junction will ultimately be extended to the mouth of the St. John's River, and with the development of Pondoland under British rule the harbour of St. John should grow in importance.

Such is a very rough sketch of the coast-line of the Cape Province. It is worth noting for the bearing which it has on the story of South African colonization. Here is a well-rounded peninsula holding a central position on the earth's surface, but with uninviting and dangerous shores girt by stormy seas and strong currents. Why did colonization in South Africa lag so far behind discovery? Why, when settlement began, did it expand so slowly? One obvious reason was that South African seas and lands were inhospitable, that men looked in vain for the natural harbours and the convenient water-ways which in other continents made easy the coming and going of the trader and the colonist. They went by instead of remaining. They learnt to look on South Africa as at best no more than a temporary halting-place. A glance at the map too will show that all down the western seaboard there is no port or settlement of even third-rate importance. It is only when Table Bay is reached that the inhabited and habitable coast begins, and north-east from Table Bay runs the main line of life into the interior. Thus, for practical purposes at the present day, the seaboard of South Africa begins at Table Bay, and its centre is not where the capital Capetown stands, but rather at Algoa Bay, the landing-place of the Albany settlers, which was the true inlet of British colonization. Take the four chief ports in British South Africa from west to east, Capetown, Port Elizabeth, East London, and Durban. From Capetown to Port Elizabeth is roughly a distance of 420 sea miles, from

PART III. Port Elizabeth to East London 130, from East London to
—♦— Durban 250.

Next take the railways inland. From Capetown to the Transvaal gold-fields is a distance of over 1,000 miles, from Port Elizabeth under 720, from East London under 700, from Durban 483. Capetown is the historic centre on the South African coast, it is not the geographical centre. Further east by sea and land is the natural trend of European colonization.

The Land. In describing the land of the Cape Province, it is a little difficult to determine what are the most natural subdivisions for the purposes of geographical description. The mountain ranges, as has been more than once pointed out, run roughly parallel to the sea, and the land lies in successive plateaus. Thus a straight line drawn north from the coast, half-way between Capetown and Port Elizabeth, to the Orange River, would pass through a coast district with its own lines of hills, through an intermediate inland plateau, the Great Karroo, and through a further plateau again, the Upper Karroo, which stretches to the Orange River. But the Orange River is not a natural boundary any more than it is the political boundary of the Cape Province. The Upper Karroo is the main plateau of the continent and stretches beyond the river through Griqualand West, through British Bechuanaland, and through the Bechuanaland Protectorate. Moreover, the South African peninsula being semi-circular, a description which took a line only from south to north would not be adequate. There is also a wide distinction between west and east, a dry and in many parts barren and thinly-populated west, and a well-watered east with a large native population. While too the mountains turn with the coast, and at most points a line can more or less definitely be drawn between coast region and inland plateau, inland there is a general slope upward from west to east, as indicated by the course of the Orange River, and here and there on the

map are subsidiary groups of mountains and hills which give to the Colony a broken and varied area difficult to outline.

The main mountain buttress of the main continental plateau runs, like the coast, in a semi-circle. At the north-western end of the Cape Province, in Little Namaqualand, it bears the name of the Kamiesbergen, rising to over 5,000 feet. Continued in a south-easterly direction as the Langebergen, Kamiskow, and Bokkeveld mountains, this main range turns the corner as the coast turns, bearing the name of the Roggeveld, and runs east in the Komsberg and Nieuwveld mountains. Bearing north of east under the name of Sneeuwbergen, one peak of which, the Compassberg, is 7,800 feet high, the highest point in the Cape Province, the mountain line is carried on by the Stormberg range, until it becomes the Quathlamba or Drakensberg mountains, the best defined mountain-range in South Africa, whose course is due north-east, strictly parallel to the coast, and which forms the inner boundary of the easternmost districts of the Cape Province, and of Natal, the outer boundary of Basutoland and the Orange Free State.

This semi-circle of mountains is the dividing range for the waters of the Cape Province. On the inside the rivers run into the Orange River, on the outside they run west, south, or south-east into the sea. In the latter case the larger streams, as a rule, find their way in kloofs or ravines through one or more intermediate lines of mountains lying between the main range and the sea, and parallel to the one and the other. In the north-west the main range, the Kamiesbergen, is the only mountain line between the interior and the sea; but, lower down on the western side, the Cedarberg and Olifants River mountains form a second and subsidiary barrier, parallel to the sea-coast and parallel also to the main mountain range. These mountains culminate in the Great Winterhoek, a point between six and seven thousand feet high; and, being carried on, they round the

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*The
Mountains.*

PART III. corner of the continent under the name of the Drakenstein and Hex River mountains, directly fronting the Cape peninsula. The corner being turned and the land running west and east, there are now, for many miles, two subsidiary ranges instead of one, clearly defined, parallel to the sea, to the main range, and to each other. Of these two ranges, the one nearest the sea is known successively as the Langebergen, the Outeniqua, and the Langkloof mountains, ending on the borders of the Uitenhage division, not far short of Port Elizabeth. Behind them the second line is the Zwartebergen, continued east as the Baviaan's Kloof mountains, the Cockscomb mountains, and the Zuurberg. As the coast turns up to the east, the mountains become more irregular in their grouping, but the Winterberg and the Amatola mountains form an intermediate barrier between the main range of the continent and the sea; and similarly through the Transkei Territories, and on the border-line between Pondoland and Griqualand East, where are well defined points such as Mount Frere and Mount Ayliff, the traveller from the sea to the main mountain range which guards the interior would cross at least one line of hills or mountains. Only it should be borne in mind that in the south the chief feature of South African geography, the rising of the land by distinct steps from the sea to the interior, is most clearly marked, and that at every point the innermost range is the main range, the source and the dividing place of the larger rivers.

*The
Rivers.*

The greatest river system in the Cape Province is that of the Orange River. The chief feeders of this river are on the northern side, the Caledon, the Vaal, and the tributaries of the Vaal. On the southern side it is fed by many streams, but none of great size, and the further it flows west, the less water it receives. Rising amid the highest and easternmost points of the Drakensberg, it flows for over a thousand miles to the Western Sea, draining, with its tributaries, an estimated area of 300,000 square miles; but it varies in volume, it

runs for a great part of its course in an inaccessible channel, pending a comprehensive irrigation scheme which is certain to be carried out in due course, it is of comparatively little use to the land through which it passes, of no use when it reaches the sea. The other rivers of the Cape Province are of small importance. Most of them alternate between flood and drought, and are devoid of navigable estuaries. On the west coast are the Olifants and the Berg Rivers. On the south coast are, among others, the Breede, the Gauritz, the Knysna, the Gamtoos, and the Sunday Rivers; and on the south-east the rivers are numerous, including the Great Fish River, the Keiskamma, the Buffalo, the Kei, the Bashee, the Umtata, and the Umzimvubu.

The coasts of South Africa are difficult of access. Inside the coast-line there is a succession of mountain barriers. The rivers when constant are usually rapid, and the streams of the plateau are dry during a great part of the year. For irrigation purposes, many if not most of the South African rivers are of little value, uncertain in volume, and flowing in deep channels; while in the whole of the Cape Province there is not one river which can fairly be called a navigable water-way. Of all the lands on the earth's surface there is none where the obstacles to colonization have been greater than they have been in South Africa; there is none where colonists, having at length entered it, would, as they dispersed, be more cut off from one another; and there is none where modern engineering has been of more priceless value, as giving the means of communication which nature has refused.

Canada opens towards Europe in the Gulf of St. Lawrence. It has lakes and rivers almost innumerable which have been highways of colonization; and up to the line of the Rocky Mountains there stretches an even continent. Australia, not unlike a larger South Africa in some points in its geographical outline, is yet far better furnished with harbours

Comparison with Canada.

PART III. and far less barred by mountain ranges. Nature, in short, has given no helping hand to the colonizing of the Cape of Good Hope. Possibly, posterity will judge that, for that very reason, this difficult land has been well and strongly colonized.

Rainfall. The best-watered districts of the Cape Province are the coast districts from the Cape peninsula eastward. In the north-west there is a nearly rainless zone, the annual rainfall at Port Nolloth not exceeding two to three inches, which is, however, supplemented by sea fogs. To the eastern districts of the Province the south-easterly winds in the summer season bring rain from the Indian Ocean. In the Cape peninsula and in the western districts the winter months are the rainy months, and rain comes from the Atlantic with westerly and north-westerly winds. Inland, the curving mountains intercept the rain from west or east alike, and on the Karroos behind them the fall is much less than on the side which faces the sea. Throughout the Province the rainfall varies very much from year to year, but at the Capetown observatory there is recorded an average annual rainfall of about twenty-five inches, and at King Williamstown of about twenty-six. At Oudtshoorn the rainfall varies from 5 to 13 inches, at Kimberley from 11 to 26, at King Williamstown from 16 to 26, at Port Elizabeth from 10 to 29, while at Beaufort West it is only 4 to 17 inches. The average in the south and south-east is much the same as in the United Kingdom, but the difference from year to year is considerably greater, and the evaporation is much greater also. Inland, on the Karroos, the annual rainfall may be said to be from ten to twenty inches, increasing from west to east, but rarely rising to twenty and often falling below ten. Here the rain is very intermittent, and often comes in the form of thunder-showers. In the Rietfontein area it falls only in December to March, the average being seven to nine inches. Beyond the Orange River, at Kimberley, the annual rainfall

is about eighteen inches, but further north, at Mafeking in British Bechuanaland, it is larger and reaches thirty inches.¹

The mean annual temperature of the Cape Province is estimated to be 63° , being much the same temperature as that of Sydney or Melbourne. At the Capetown observatory the mean is 62° , the mean maximum being 71° and the mean minimum 53° . But any general statement of the climate of a territory so extensive and so varied in surface is somewhat misleading. In the Rietfontein area in the north-west the winter is very cold with frost, and the summer gives an average shade temperature of 95° . Mafeking, on the northern frontier of the Province, is 870 miles by rail north-east of Capetown, and therefore nearer by hundreds of miles to the tropics. On the other hand, the temperature of the inland districts is modified by their height above the sea and by the dryness of the air; and the rainfall as well as the altitude of the west is lower than that of the east in the same latitudes. The climate of Capetown, in spite of storm and wind, is a mild English climate; and that of Grahamstown, 1,800 feet above the sea, is for Englishmen, in point of healthiness, all that could be desired. But it is on the Karroos, the open plains beyond the mountains, that the typical South African climate is experienced; very dry, very bracing, with a far greater difference of temperature between day and night than is the case on the lower levels. The meaning of the word Karroo is a bare place, and exposed these plateaus are to the full strength of the sun, to all the freshness of the air. The Karroo proper is an intermediate plateau, lying between the Zwartebergen on the south and the main mountain range of the continent on the north. Its average level is from 2,000 to 3,000 feet. Beyond the main mountain range the level of the continental plateau, sometimes known, as far as the Orange River, as the Upper Karroo, is from

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Temperature.

The Karroo.

¹ For the climate of South Africa scientifically treated, see A. Knox, *The Climate of the Continent of Africa*, Cambridge, 1911.

PART III. 3,000 to 5,000 feet. It is essentially a life-giving and invigorating climate, this inland climate of South Africa. The physique of Europeans in the Cape Province is as fine as it is, in the case of the Dutch Boers it is finer than it is, in their old northern home. In many parts the climate has the qualities of low atmospheric pressure, purity, dryness, diaphaneity and stillness which are important in the treatment of consumption.

*Sheep
Farming.*

The plains of the Karroo, including both the Karroo proper and the Upper Karroo, from Calvinia in the west to Middelburg in the east, and from the line of the Zwarteborgen to the Orange River, are pastoral districts, where, except in times of unusual drought, sheep thrive upon the stunted bush which forms the normal vegetation of these plains. The Fraserburg, Beaufort West, and Victoria West divisions are typical sheep-farming districts of the Karroo. Still larger numbers of sheep, however, are to be found in the grass country to the east of the Karroo, in the divisions of Queenstown, Cathcart, Stutterheim, Wodehouse, Aliwal North, and Barkly East. In the Transkei Territories too there is a large and growing number of sheep, and some of the best sheep farms are in the long settled districts in the south-west of the Colony, in Swellendam, Caledon, and Bredasdorp. The sheep are mainly of the merino breed, more valuable as wool producers than the old type of Cape sheep which is dying out except among the natives; and the great bulk of the wool is exported from Port Elizabeth and East London. Wool, as a product of the Cape Province, is supplemented by mohair; and angora goats, which yield the latter article, are pastured in many districts, especially in the inland divisions behind Port Elizabeth, such as Somerset East and Graaff Reinet.

Cattle.

Wherever there is feed in the Province for cattle, cattle are found, more especially perhaps in the coast districts, in the eastern and north-eastern grass lands, and north of the Orange River; but the number of cattle in the Cape Province

increases only slowly, for, with the development of railways and the improvement of roads, oxen are year by year less required for purposes of transport; and at no distant time the trekker in his ox-wagon will become the exception, where he was once the rule. Dairy farming is being gradually extended, but butter and cheese are still imported from beyond the sea.

Ostrich-farming is a speciality of South Africa. In the Cape Province the largest ostrich farms are in the Oudtshoorn division, in the south behind Mossel Bay; but the industry is also carried on in the districts round Port Elizabeth, the divisions of Uitenhage, Albany, and Somerset East.

Turning from the pastoral resources of the Colony to its agricultural wealth, it must be noted that the Cape Province has no pretensions to be one of the grain-producing territories of the world. It has neither the soil nor the climate of the north-west of Canada, and corn hardly appears in the list of exports. Yet the country produces grain of all kinds, from wheat to maize and Kaffir corn, wheat notably in the south-west corner, where from very early days of European settlement Malmesbury and Piquetberg have been the corn-grower's special districts, and maize or mealies in those parts of the Province, such as the Transkei, where there is a large native population. Next to corn comes wine. There was a time when wine was the best-known product of the Cape, and when Constantia fetched a monopoly price in Europe. That time has long since passed, but wine is still exported from the Cape; and, if the export is small, it is not the grape which is to blame so much as the manufacture of the wine. The wine-growing districts are the Cape peninsula itself, which contains the famous vineyards of Constantia, and the neighbouring divisions of the mainland, Stellenbosch, Paarl, Malmesbury, Worcester, and Robertson. These were the scenes of the earliest outlying settlements, where the French refugees from a land of vines brought their skill and know-

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—♦—

Ostrich-Farming.

Agriculture.

PART III. ledge to bear upon wine-growing in South Africa. Fruit of
 —♦♦— all kinds grows well in the Cape Province, varying with the level of the land. In the southern districts is the largest growth, and in the south too, especially in the division of Oudtshoorn, tobacco is cultivated.

Forests. There is forest land in the Cape Province, not on the bare central plains, nor now to any extent on the western side of the Province, though the name of the Cedarberg Mountains in the Clanwilliam division tells of the cedar forests which once clothed this region. The best-known forest area is in the centre of the southern coast, where the rainfall is plentiful, in the George, Knysna, and Humansdorp divisions. Here there is a belt of timber, 150 miles long with a depth inland of from ten to twenty miles, valuable, among other reasons, as a preserve for elephants. The other chief forest region is further to the east, among the Amatola Mountains behind King Williamstown. The timber includes yellowwood, stinkwood (used in making wagons), and boxwood.

Minerals. Of the minerals found within the range of the Province, the diamonds of the Kimberley district take the first place, and the copper of Namaqualand comes second; coal is found and mined to the north of Queenstown in the north-eastern districts, at Indwe, Fairview, Cyphergat, and Molteno. A little gold has been mined in the Knysna division on the southern coast, but the gold which used to swell the export returns of the Cape came from beyond its borders.

Dividing the Province by geographical features, climate, and products, there is a desert tract in the north-west—Namaqualand, whence little comes but copper. To the south of Namaqualand, along the coast, is the division of Clanwilliam, through which the Olifants River flows. It is in most parts a dry area, but contains grazing lands, and, where water is more plentiful, grain and fruit farms. Its population is small and scattered, and it contains but one small town which also bears the name of Clanwilliam. South of this division are

Piquetberg and Malmesbury, corn-growing districts between the mountains and the sea, watered by the Berg River, with a considerable population of Dutch farmers. Malmesbury, the chief centre in these districts, is a small country town with between 3,000 and 4,000 inhabitants, about fifty miles north of Capetown, with which it is connected by rail, this branch-line being the westernmost railway in the Cape Province with the exception of the Copper Company's line from Ookiep to Port Nolloth.

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Malmesbury.

South of Malmesbury are what would in England be called the home counties, the Cape division, Stellenbosch, and the Paarl. These are the scenes of the original Dutch and French settlers in or near the Cape peninsula, townsmen, vine and fruit growers. In addition to Capetown and its suburbs, there are in the peninsula the watering-place of Kalk Bay, and the naval station of Simonstown; and outside it are the old Dutch country town of Stellenbosch, with 6,000 to 7,000 inhabitants, the chief educational centre, outside Capetown, of the western districts of the Colony, the Paarl with a population of 12,000, Wellington, and Fransche Hoek 'the French corner.'

The Home Counties.

Following the line of the southern coast, between the Zwartebergen and the sea, and traversed throughout their length by the coast range of the Langebergen, are Caledon and Robertson, Bredasdorp and Swellendam, Riversdale and Ladismith, Mossel Bay and Oudtshoorn. These are corn-growing, fruit-growing, and pastoral districts, including most of the lands watered by the Breede River and its tributaries. Oudtshoorn, which lies behind Mossel Bay, north of the coast range, south of the Zwartebergen, is perhaps the most important division, a fertile and well-watered area where a large amount of fruit is grown in addition to the tobacco-planting and ostrich-farming industries. The town of Oudtshoorn has a population of nearly 11,000. East of Mossel Bay and Oudtshoorn are the timber-producing districts of George

Oudtshoorn.

PART III. and Knysna, with Uniondale immediately behind them. The forest belt runs east into the Humansdorp division, next to which is Uitenhage and the division of Port Elizabeth on Algoa Bay. Uitenhage and Humansdorp are agricultural and pastoral districts, and the town of Uitenhage on the Zwartkops River is one of some importance, chiefly owing to the wool-washing industry. Its population in 1911 numbered over 11,500.

*Inland
Districts.*

Having traced the coast districts round from the mouth of the Orange River to Algoa Bay, if a straight line be drawn from that Bay to the Orange River, it will be found that nearly all the inland territory to the west of that line consists of Karroo country. It may be noted too, in passing, that the only mineral districts in the western half of the Province and south of the Orange River are the copper-bearing area in Namaqualand, and the small gold-bearing area in the Knysna division. Inside Namaqualand and Clanwilliam, going from west to east, and keeping north of the main dividing range, we have Calvinia, Fraserburg, Carnarvon, Prieska, and Victoria West, large tracts of territory, in great measure desert land, little populated, bare and dry, but with extensive sheep and goat runs, improving from west to east. Through Victoria West runs the railway from Capetown to the Transvaal gold-fields. East of these divisions are Richmond, Hopetown, Hanover, and Colesberg, still north of the dividing range, still west of the longitude of Algoa Bay. High above the sea, dry and bracing, these districts, like the divisions previously mentioned, are mainly pastoral and mainly wool-producing districts; but they are at once less dried up than the more western territories, and more within the range of civilization, as railways come into and through them from Capetown in one direction, from Port Elizabeth on the other. Thus they contain more towns than are to be found further west, though the towns are all of small size. Among them are Hopetown upon the Orange

River, Colesberg near to it, Hanover, and Richmond; the last three places all being between 4,000 and 5,000 feet above the sea. CH. V.
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South of the inland divisions which have been specified above, and separated from them by the dividing range, is the Karroo proper, the Great Karroo of Cape Colony history. *The Great Karroo.*
In the south-west corner of this area, however, shut in by circling mountains, there are tracts which belong neither to the coast region nor to the Karroo, parts of the Worcester and Tulbagh divisions, lying between the Drakenstein Mountains and Great Winterhoek on the one side and the Hex River Mountains on the other. Here are fertile corn and wine-growing valleys, the town of Worcester with nearly 8,000 inhabitants, Tulbagh, and Ceres. *Worcester.*
East and north-east the land rises to the Karroo, comprising the divisions of Prince Albert and Beaufort West, Willowmore, Aberdeen, Jansenville, Murraysburg, Graaff Reinet, and Middelburg; all, roughly speaking, south of the dividing range, though here and there they stretch across the mountains¹. Typical towns of this Karroo district are Beaufort West with about 4,500, and Graaff Reinet with about 8,000 inhabitants, each a centre of the pastoral industry, the former on the railway from Cape-town to the interior, the latter connected by rail with Port Elizabeth. *Beaufort West and Graaff Reinet.*
In old Dutch times Graaff Reinet was the most remote settlement in the Cape Colony, the home of the malcontent Boers, who resented the irksome rule of the Netherlands Company. Now it is, in geographical position, perhaps the most central point in the Province, on the border line between the east and the west, the north and the south.

Due north of Port Elizabeth and Algoa Bay are half-way districts between the Karroo country of the west and the grass lands of the east, such as Somerset East and Cradock; *Somerset East and Cradock.*

¹ The division of Beaufort West, for instance, extends beyond the dividing range, and Middelburg is north of the Compassberg though apparently in the southern watershed.

PART III. and, the further the distance is from the sea, the more the plateau of the Upper Karroo extends towards the east, including the division of Albert with its town of Burghersdorp, and the division of Aliwal North.

Albany. The coast districts in the region of Algoa Bay as far east as the Great Fish River, Alexandria, Albany, and Bathurst, are the old border districts of the colony, the scene of the Albany settlement, watered by the Sunday, the Bushman, and the Kowie Rivers. Near the coast is sandy soil with the jungle known as the Addo Bush, and inland too there are tracts of forest, between the Sunday River and the great Fish River, and along the intermediate streams of the Bushman and the Kowie. In Albany is Grahamstown, not so many years ago a border station, now in a sense the capital, though not the commercial centre, of the eastern half of the Cape Province. Standing 1,800 feet above the sea, with beautiful surroundings, with a fertile soil and an equable climate, easily accessible by rail both from the coast and from the interior, with greater facilities for education than most South African towns possess, it is eminently a home for Englishmen in South Africa. At the last census it had a population of 13,830.

King Williamstown. Between the Fish River and the Kei, near the coast, are Peddie, a district with a large native population, Kaffirs who settled down under British rule or were transplanted from other areas, East London, and King Williamstown, the latter a town of over 9,000 inhabitants. In this part of the country there was a strong German element, dating from the time when the military settlers of the German legion were brought over to South Africa, but in time it has become largely anglicized. Behind King Williamstown is the Amatola region, a tract of mountains, woods, and ravines, where for many years the Kaffir tribes held out against the onward movement of European colonization. The inland divisions between Algoa Bay and the Kei, rising ever towards the

north, include Bedford, Fort Beaufort, Stockenstrom, Victoria East, Stutterheim, Cathcart, Queenstown, Tarkastadt, Dordrecht, Wodehouse, and Barkly East. Sheep-farming is the great industry of these districts, but there is good agricultural land also in parts, and in the north-east, in the Stormberg range, are the only coal-mines of the Cape Province. The largest town in this area is Queenstown with over 9,000 inhabitants.

CH. V.



The further the Cape Province extends to the east, the more strongly marked is the main dividing range, rising high in the summits of the Drakensberg, but less definite are the intervening lines of hills or mountains. Thus in the Transkei Territories it is not so easy to distinguish the separate terraces as it is farther west. All these territories lie between the main range and the sea, they all slope upwards towards the Drakensberg, they are watered by rivers flowing parallel to each other, they contain a warm coast region, and inland there is broken undulating country, comparatively fertile and well watered. The Transkei Territories have one after another been definitely annexed to the Cape Province, the last semi-independent district, Pondoland, having been incorporated in the Colony in 1894. They include districts which were Fingo and Galeka reserves, Tembuland, Pondoland, on the coast of which is the Port of St. John, and Griqualand East, behind and on a higher level than Pondoland, having its administrative centre at Kokstadt. The principal products of these territories are cattle, sheep, and maize, and the population consists mainly of natives, who mustered 890,000 in 1911, superintended by white officers, and influenced by the mission stations which for many years have been planted among them. In 1911 the European population was still under 20,000. The northernmost districts of the Transkei are nearer to and more akin to Natal than to the Province to which they politically belong.

*The
Transkei.**Griqua-
land West.*

North of the Orange River, on the main plateau of South

PART III. Africa, are two provinces of the Cape. Griqualand West and British Bechuanaland. Through Griqualand West flows the Vaal River in a south-westerly direction, bringing with it the waters of the Harts River from the north, of the Modder from the east. Griqualand West is for the most part a dry and dusty land, but the find of diamonds has created a large town in the middle of little more than a desert. This is *Kimberley*. Kimberley on its eastern frontier, standing over 4,000 feet high, and with a population which at the last census numbered over 29,000. Beaconsfield, rather over two miles to the south-west, is a suburb of Kimberley, and contains over 14,000 residents. Kimberley has of late been somewhat overshadowed by the gold-mining centres of the Transvaal; but, in addition to its diamond mines, it has importance as the one large town on the railway route from Capetown to the far interior. Twenty miles to the north-west is Barkly West, also connected with the diamond industry; but diamonds here are won not so much from 'dry diggings' as by washing the alluvial soil on the banks of the Vaal. Apart from its one source of mineral wealth, there is little to be said of Griqualand West. Yet its climate is not unhealthy, its soil is not unfruitful, and, where a water-supply can be obtained, agriculture prospers.

*British
Bechuana-
land.*

North and west of the last-named province is British Bechuanaland, the latest acquisition of the Cape Colony, with an estimated area of 51,500 square miles.¹ Its eastern boundary is the frontier of the Transvaal, its western boundary is the 20th meridian of east longitude, which is the frontier line of the German Protectorate. Griqualand West and the Orange River bound it on the south, and on the north its frontiers are the Nosop or Oup River, the Molopo, and the little stream known as the Ramathlabama Spruit. For purposes of administration there have hitherto been five organized districts in the territory: on the eastern

¹ See Parl. Paper, Cd. 7932.

frontier, taken from south to north, Taungs, Vryburg, and Mafeking; due west of Taungs, Kuruman; and in the far south-west the Gordonia district, with its centre at Upington upon the Orange River. On the extreme western frontier is an area known as the Mier district, mainly occupied by bastards or half-breeds, the chief settlement in which is Rietfontein, where for many years there has been a station of the Rhenish mission.¹ British Bechuanaland is a section of the central plateau of South Africa, having an average elevation of 4,000 feet above the sea. Its climate is dry and bracing, with a wide range of temperature, the summer days being very hot, the nights in winter very cold. The rainfall in the eastern districts of the territory averages twenty-five inches a year, at Mafeking thirty, the rain falling mainly in the summer months, from November to April; but on these upland plains evaporation is so rapid that the water-supply is not proportioned to the amount of rain which falls. Water is fairly plentiful on the eastern side, and, if not visible on the surface, can usually be obtained by sinking wells; but further to the west, in the Kalahari desert, a small rainfall, coupled with rapid evaporation, has produced a dry and desert land. Thus the Molopo River, which forms for a long way the northern boundary of the territory, gives high up on its course, where it flows into Bechuanaland out of the Transvaal, a fairly constant supply of water; but, while its channel reaches the Orange River after a southerly course of very many miles, most of the water which it should contain disappears on its passage through the desert. The principal settlements are consequently in the east. Here are the two towns of the territory, Vryburg and Mafeking, nearly 100 miles apart, both on the railway; and here are organized Native Reserves, as at Taungs in the south-eastern corner of the territory, and at Setlagoli, between Vryburg and Mafeking,

*Native
Reserves.*

¹ A most interesting account of this region is given by Mr. J. F. Herbst in a report of 1908; see Parl. Paper, Cd. 4323.

PART III. the total area of demarcated Reserves being nearly 5,000 square miles. Till a few years ago the best-known settlement in the Bechuana region was the missionary settlement of Kuruman, where an unfailing supply of water favoured continuous mission work ; but Kuruman lies westward of the main route to the north, and at a distance from the railway which links Bechuanaland to the rest of the Cape Colony. Taungs and Mafeking are the districts in which the native population is largest, while the Europeans, who at the 1911 census numbered over 14,000, are to be found mainly in the districts of Vryburg, Gordonia, and Kuruman. Bechuanaland, on its eastern side, consists mainly of grassy uplands, very well adapted for grazing cattle, but not so suitable for rearing sheep. Cattle have been in the past the principal product of the territory, but, wherever there is water, grain, fruit, and vegetables grow well ; and, more especially, a considerable quantity of maize is raised. Timber was more plentiful a few years ago than it is at the present day, the trees having been wastefully cut down to be used as fuel at Kimberley. There are indications of mineral wealth in certain districts, especially of coal in the Setlagoli Reserve, but no mines have yet been worked, and it is as a pastoral land that Bechuanaland has hitherto prospered in quiet sort. While under the Imperial Government its administration was, to a large extent, paid for by the British tax-payer, but the revenue has been expanding of late years, farmers have come in from over the border and taken up land, and the railway has created trade. As a part of the Cape Province, the territory bids fair to pay its way, with its two growing townships, its farms and cattle-runs, and clans of natives who, under British rule, have known years of peace and lived on allotted ground in security and content.

Such is the Cape Province, a varied land with a long coastline and great inland plateaus. Its great drawbacks are want of harbours and want of water both for transport and for

irrigation. It is in the main a land of pastoral industries. Its towns are few and of no great size. Diamonds and copper represent its mineral resources. The spread of colonization has depended largely on railways, which have given the needed access to markets and facility of moving in a much divided area from place to place.

CH. V.



At the census of 1911 the total population of the Cape Province was returned at 2,564,965. These returns gave 9.26 persons to the square mile, but the population is very unequally distributed, the dwellers in the north-western divisions of the Province—Namaqualand, Calvinia, Carnarvon, Fraserburg, Port Nolloth, and Prieska—numbering little over one to the square mile. Of the total population 582,377, or nearly twenty-five per cent. were white, and 1,982,588, or slightly over seventy-five per cent. were coloured. A little more than two centuries ago, in 1690-1, the European population of the Cape did not exceed 1,200 to 1,300 all told; and in 1791 the number of Europeans was not larger than 14,000 or 15,000. Of the native population, which also grows in numbers, in 1911, 1,519,939 were of Bantu race; 391,327 were returned as of mixed origin; the Hottentots and Bushmen numbered 36,194; and the Malays 19,763. The Malays are a living record of the times of the Netherlands East India Company, and of the close connexion which then existed between the East Indies and the Cape. They are to be found mainly in or near Capetown, and form a large proportion of the fishermen of the Province. In all the districts, outside a few of the towns, the coloured races largely outnumber the whites, but especially is this the case in the territories beyond the Kei, where the white men are little more than one in fifty. In 1891, when Bechuanaland and Pondoland were not included, the Europeans numbered 376,987, the coloured 1,150,237.

The census of British Bechuanaland in 1891, excluding natives who paid the hut tax, gave a population of 12,736,

PART III. of whom over 5,000 were Europeans. The members of the Bechuana clans were estimated to number 60,000, making the total population of the territory, on a very rough estimate, about 73,000. The number of inhabitants in Pondoland was estimated at 200,000; and the total population therefore, of Cape Province, as at present bounded, but on the basis of the census returns of 1891, was about 1,800,000.

Religion. Of the white population an overwhelming majority are Protestants in religion. The 1911 census showed that in the Province, including British Bechuanaland and Pondoland, nearly 95 per cent. of the whites were Protestants, of whom over 58 per cent. belonged to the Dutch Reformed Church, 19 per cent. were members of the Church of England, nearly 6 per cent. were Wesleyans, and over $3\frac{1}{3}$ per cent. were Presbyterians. In the country districts the Dutch Reformed Church has far the greatest number of adherents. In some of the principal towns the Church of England is rather the stronger of the two denominations. A very large percentage of natives are classed as of no religion, and among the Bantus the Wesleyans claim the largest number of native Christians. The Mohammedan community consists principally of the Malays.

Government. The functions of the colonial Parliament which prior to union legislated for the Cape are now divided in practical working between the Parliament of the Union and the Provincial Council of the Cape, which within the sphere marked out for it by the South Africa Act is practically allowed considerable freedom from interference either by the over-riding power of the Parliament, or the refusal of assent to legislation. The Provincial Council numbers fifty-one members, each elected for one constituency, and the franchise for the Provincial Council and for the election of the fifty-one members of the House of Assembly who represent the Cape in the Union Parliament is the old franchise as it was in force before the proclamation of union for the election of members of the Assembly.

The requirements of the franchise are male sex, age 21 years, ability to sign one's name and write one's address and occupation, and either occupation of property worth £75 within the electoral division, for which registration is applied for, for a period of twelve months, or the receipt of salary or wages at the rate of not less than £50 per annum for twelve months, coupled with residence for three months in the division for which registration is applied for. There is no disqualification for colour, but the holding of land by a mere tribal or communal tenure does not constitute a qualification within the property clause of the franchise, and that applies even to the tenure of land under the Glen Grey system which is a semi-individual tenure of land. Pauperism is not a disqualification, but in the case of the Provincial and Parliamentary elections alike the receipt of Imperial full pay as a soldier is a ground for disqualification. Lunacy disqualifies in both cases, as does conviction and sentence for murder and treason, unless a free pardon has been granted, and conviction and sentence for rape, theft, fraud, perjury, and forgery, unless a free pardon has been granted, or unless five years have expired since the end of the sentence imposed. Membership is open to any person qualified as a voter, and thus persons of colour can sit on the Provincial Council though excluded by the requirement of European descent from the Parliament of the Union. The administration of Provincial services is entrusted to an Executive Committee of four members elected by the Provincial Council, and an Administrator appointed by the Union Government. The members of the Committee are selected on the principle of proportional representation with the single transferable vote.

The Cape has a fully developed system of municipal institutions. Divisional Councils were first established in 1855, when they were invested with certain functions as to branch roads, district schools, pounds and Crown lands. Since then they have been relieved of duties in regard to schools and

*Municipal
Institutions.*

PART III. lands, but their power has otherwise been widely extended.

—♦— The Councils are elected triennially, and consist of from six to eight members except in the case of the Cape division, where the Council, styled under Act No. 33 of 1909 the Rural Council, consists of eighteen members. In addition, the Civil Commissioner, who is usually also Resident Magistrate, is Chairman. The electors consist of the owners or lessees of immovable property in the division and occupiers for at least twelve months of immovable property worth £75. Members must be registered as voters and own immovable property worth £500; women may neither vote nor be members. The maintenance of all roads is entrusted to them, and they have the duty of caring for outspans, pounds, and the destruction of noxious weeds and the imposition of the dog-tax. They may nominate Field Cornets, impose rates for local public works, and borrow money on the security of the rates, besides having duties as regards disputed boundaries and beacons. They return annually three members to the District Licensing Court. Their revenue is derived from road rates, toll fees and pound sales. The councils numbered eighty-one in 1911, when their receipts exceeded £290,000, and their accounts are subject to audit in the first place by two elective auditors and finally formerly by the Controller and Auditor-General and now by the Provincial Auditor.

Municipalities.

Municipalities date from 1836, and their powers were definitely revised and consolidated in 1882, and again by Ordinance No. 10 of 1912. Every municipality is governed by a council consisting of a mayor and not less than six or more than twenty-four councillors, who hold office for three years, and a third of whom are elected annually by the rate-payers. The franchise is given to owners of property valued at £100 and over, and occupiers of property valued at £200 and over. The municipalities may raise a rate based on the value of property on owners, but not exceeding 4*d.* in the pound, except with the consent of the enrolled voters, if

the rate is challenged. The mayors or chairmen are *ex officio* members of District Licensing Boards. There were in 1911 123 municipalities in the Province, with receipts approaching £1,200,000 a year, and a slightly smaller expenditure, while the municipal debt reaches seven million pounds. The audit of the accounts is now in part under the control of the Government, auditors being annually appointed one by the Council and one by the Administrator.

CH. V.



In hamlets which are too small to be entrusted with municipal privileges there are Village Management Boards, exercising powers of similar kind to but more restricted than municipalities, which are entrusted with full municipal government. The members of such a board consist of three to five persons elected by the Parliamentary voters resident in the area, and the boards cannot levy rates, but may request the divisional council to do so for them, in which case the council may raise a rate not exceeding 3d. in the pound. The small scale of the operations of these boards, which number eighty-five, and whose powers are regulated by an Act of 1881, can be seen from the fact that their total revenue in 1908-9 was little over £12,750.

Village
Boards.

The law of the Province is Roman-Dutch law, modified by Acts passed by the Colonial Legislature and since 1910 by Ordinances of the Provincial Council and Acts of the Union. In the districts to the east of the Kei River a special Native Territories Penal Code is in force, and in civil cases between natives in these territories native law is to be followed according to Proclamation No. 110 of 1879. These territories are grouped under one Chief Native Commissioner with head-quarters at Umtata, under whom there are twenty-nine Magistrates, of whom nine are stationed in Griqualand East, seven in Tembuland, six in the Transkei, and seven in Pondoland. In British Bechuanaland, under ss. 31 and 32 of Proclamation No. 2 of 1885, native law is administered both in civil and criminal cases by native chiefs, subject

Law.

PART III. to appeal to the ordinary courts. The Provincial Division of the Supreme Court consists of a Judge President and eight Puisne Judges, three of whom form the Eastern Districts Local Division, and one the Griqualand West Local Division. Minor cases are brought before the courts of the Resident Magistrates and of paid Justices of the Peace, from whose decisions appeals lie to the Supreme Court.

Revenue. The total revenue of the Cape Colony in 1901-2 (excluding British Bechuanaland) amounted to £9,050,371, mainly derived from railways and customs; the total fell to £7,312,112 in 1908-9, but rose to £7,747,332 for the eleven months to May 30, 1910. On December 31, 1909, the total Public Debt of all kinds amounted to £48,240,891 debenture and stock debt, and £4,325,144 in temporary loans.

Imports and Exports. In 1909 the imports were valued at £46,244,590, out of which 95.5 per cent. was credited to the United Kingdom. The exports in the same year, excluding specie, were valued at £13,909,299, of which the exports to the United Kingdom formed 60.7 per cent. The largest export was diamonds valued at £6,370,301, and after diamonds came the following articles of export:—

Wool	£2,820,716
Ostrich feathers	2,091,207
Angora hair	809,070
Skins (sheep and goat)	881,764

The corresponding figures for the year 1901 are as follows:—

Value of total imports	£21,416,160
Value of total exports	10,719,779
Value of imports from the United Kingdom	13,802,877
Value of exports to the United Kingdom	9,934,950

Principal articles of export:—

Diamonds	£4,930,104
Wool	1,489,246
Ostrich feathers	839,049
Angora hair	502,605
Skins (sheep and goat)	389,218

It should be noted that during the year 1901 the South African War was still continuing. CH. V.
—+—

The Government's interest in education dates from 1865, when an Education Act became law; at the close of the following year the number of schools was returned at 392. At the end of 1911 there were 4,221 schools in operation in the Province, an increase of 283 as compared with 1910, and the number of pupils on the roll was 200,038 as compared with 185,711. Of these white children numbered 45,104 boys and 43,320 girls, and coloured 52,338 boys and 59,276 girls. The average attendance was 169,153. The general control of public schools, including the question of religious education, rests with local school boards elected to the extent of two-thirds by the ratepayers. Special aid is given in necessitous cases towards the education of children at boarding-schools. When the children of farmers cannot possibly attend school owing to the nearest available school being over three miles away, allowances of from £3 10s. to £4 10s. a child, with additional allowances based on the educational result, may be made to provide a tutor or governess, provided that at least five children must be under instruction at one place and time.¹ Education may be made compulsory by local option, and in 100 out of 119 districts it is compulsory.

Higher education is provided by the four colleges, the South African College at Cape Town, the Victoria College at Stellenbosch, the Rhodes University College at Grahamstown, and the Huguenot College at Wellington, which form part of the University of the Cape. There are forty-five high or secondary schools with nearly six hundred teachers. The most important educational centres of the Province are, besides the four head-quarters of University colleges, the Paarl, Port Elizabeth, Kimberley, Graaff-Reinet and Oudtshoorn, and information regarding educational topics in general is diffused

¹ For the use of Dutch and English in education, see above, pp. 27-9.

PART III. by the Education Gazette issued by the Education Department.

—♦— Agricultural education is provided by the school at Elsenburg, near Stellenbosch, and a Government School of Forestry has been established at Tokai near Cape Town. The South African College has attached to it a school of mines, which gives an eighteen months' theoretical course in the subject, the pupils completing the practical side of the teaching at Johannesburg.

Special mention should be made of the institution at Lovedale in Victoria East, founded by the Free Church of Scotland. The schools give technical and other instruction, and in 1912 were attended by nearly 700 pupils, mostly coloured.

CHAPTER VI

NATAL

THE boundaries of Natal were first defined in a treaty of CH. VI.
October 5, 1843, with Panda, the King of the Zulus. They —♦—
were increased in size by a treaty of 1850, when the south- *Boun-*
western boundary was extended by the cession of portion of *daries.*
his territory by Faku, Chief of the Amapondas, and they were
in their new shape re-defined by the Order in Council of
February 3, 1858. Letters Patent of December 9, 1863,
authorized the annexation of certain territory lying between
the Umzimkulu and Umtamfuna Rivers, the annexation being
carried out on September 7, 1865. The Amaquatis were
added to the territory under British protection by treaty of
December 10, 1875. On December 18, 1884, St. Lucia
Bay was taken possession of in the name of the Queen in
virtue of the treaty made with Panda in 1843; the German
protest against the annexation which ensued was finally
withdrawn as the result of the negotiations of April-June,
1885, and the ratification of the annexation was published
on July 25, 1885, by the High Commissioner of South
Africa. On May 14, 1887, Zululand became a British
possession, and in 1888 the boundaries of Zululand were
extended to cover the territories of the chiefs Deamana and
Sibedna. In 1887 Amatongaland came under British influence
by treaty; part of it was annexed on April 23, 1895; a
protectorate over the remainder was proclaimed on May 30,
1895; and on November 30, 1897, it was annexed to
Zululand. Both Zululand and the incorporated Amatonga-
land were annexed to Natal by Letters Patent of December 1,

PART III. 1897. Finally, under the authority of an Order in Council of November 19, 1902, the districts of Utrecht and Vryheid, and part of the district of Wakkerstroom, formerly appertaining to the Transvaal, were annexed in January, 1903, to Natal.

*Boundary
with
Portugal.*

The only point on which Natal touches foreign territory is on the north. By article III of the treaty of 1891 with Portugal, Great Britain engaged not to object to the extension of the Portuguese sphere of influence south of Delagoa Bay as far as a line following the parallel of the confluence of the River Pongola with the River Maputa to the sea-coast. The exact line between Amatongaland and Portuguese territory was defined in accordance with this article by an exchange of notes of September 24 and October 5, 1895, and the actual delimitation was carried out by Commissioners, whose agreement was recorded in a description signed on October 2, 1897, and accepted by an exchange of notes of December 29, 1898, and January 25, 1899. The parallel chosen is in south latitude $26^{\circ} 51' 12.96''$, and at the sea-coast the parallel of the summit of Oto peak.

PART I. NATAL PROPER

Area.

The northernmost point of Natal proper is in about $27^{\circ} 20'$ degrees of south latitude, its southernmost point is just beyond the thirty-first parallel. On the east it touches $31^{\circ} 30'$ east longitude, and on the west $28^{\circ} 50'$ east longitude, the source and the mouth of the Tugela River being respectively the westernmost and easternmost points. The territory, inclusive of Zululand, has an extreme length from north to south of about 250 miles, and an extreme breadth from west to east of about 160. The length of its coast-line is 376 miles (Natal, 166 miles, Zululand, 210 miles), and it has an area of 35,371 square miles (Natal, 17,940 square miles, Zululand, 10,461 square miles, the new territory added in 1903,

6,970 square miles). Its size is therefore larger than that of CH. VI, Scotland, or, to compare other British colonies, larger than —♦— Ceylon or Tasmania.

The coast-line of Natal, like that of the Cape Province, is *Coast-line.* somewhat wanting in natural harbours. Many rivers run into the sea within its borders, but few have navigable estuaries. The main port¹ is the port of Durban, which, till a few years ago, was always known as Port Natal. It has the great advantage of being in the centre of the coast-line. It consists of a shallow land-locked bay with an area of between seven and eight square miles. The entrance faces north-east; on its southern side is the Bluff of Natal, as it is called, over 200 feet high, and on its northern side is a low-lying tongue of land, known as Sandy Point or the Point. A bar of sand runs across the mouth, and has in past times prevented ships of any size from entering the bay; but much has of late years been done by dredging and by the construction of breakwaters on either side, which narrow the entrance to about a quarter of a mile in breadth, to deepen the water-way and make it available for large vessels. On the north side of the bay stands Durban, the largest town in the Colony. The centre of the town is nearly two miles from the Point, and it is overlooked on the western—the mainland—side by the wooded Berea Hills, the slopes of which form a residential suburb of the town.

Durban is about 930 statute miles distant from Capetown, 1,760 from Mauritius, 300 from Delagoa Bay, and 1,830 from Zanzibar.

The land of Natal, like South Africa generally, rises in terraces from the sea. Durban is nearly at the sea-level. Pinetown, seventeen miles inland, stands 1,100 feet above

¹ A small port, Port Shepstone, is also coming into being in Alfred county, at the mouth of the Umzimkulu River, where, as at Durban, there is a bar to be dredged.

PART III. the sea. Pietermaritzburg, seventy miles by rail from
 —♦— Durban, is 2,200 feet above the sea. Seventy-five miles by
Pieter- rail to the north-west of Pietermaritzburg, Estcourt stands
maritzburg. 3,833 feet high. Ladysmith, forty-four miles further north
 than Estcourt, is on a somewhat lower level, though well
 over 3,200 feet. Beyond Ladysmith, on the west the Van
 Reenen Pass, over the Drakensberg into the Orange Free
 State, is 5,500 feet high; and on the north, Charlestown,
 near the frontier of the Transvaal, stands on a level of nearly
 5,400 feet.

The Moun- In the centre of the western frontier of the Province the
tains. Drakensberg Mountains rise to their highest level, their
 peaks being loftier than any other mountain tops in South
 Africa. The Giant's Castle and the Mont aux Sources,
 both on the boundary line between Natal and Basutoland,
 are respectively over 9,000 and over 11,000 feet high, while
 just beyond the boundary and within Basutoland the Cathkin
 Peak or Champagne Castle rises to over 10,000 feet. The
 Mont aux Sources, the highest of the three peaks, stands in
 an angle of the frontier, and from this point to the extreme
 north of the Province the same line of mountains runs due
 north-east at a somewhat lower level than before, the
 summits being in no case as high as 8,000 feet. From the
 Drakensberg subsidiary ranges run across the Province to-
 wards the east, the north-east, or the south-east. Such are
 the Biggarsberg Mountains, which cut off the northernmost
 corner of Natal—the Newcastle district—from the rest of
 the Province; the Mooi River heights, which can be traced
 in a north-easterly direction from the Giant's Castle to the
 valley of the Tugela; and two other ranges which also start
 from the Giant's Castle, and, dividing at Spion Kop, run in
 the one case across the Umvoti county to the lower Tugela,
 in the other, in a south-easterly direction to the sea, ending
 in the Berea Hills behind Durban. Thus the main mountain
 system of Natal consists of the Drakensberg, with transverse



ranges running out from it like the fingers of a hand; but there are also isolated groups of mountains in the Colony, such as the Ingeli Mountains in the extreme south-west, and the Mahwaqa Mountains in the west, and single mountain tops which in Natal, as in Zululand, stand out on the landscape as solitary beacons.

Natal is a well-watered land. Its rivers are many, but most of them are of little use for purposes of navigation. The largest is the Tugela, which rises on the slopes of the Mont aux Sources¹, and flows for 200 miles before it reaches the sea, draining, with its tributaries, nearly half the Province. It begins with a waterfall and ends with a bar, and for many miles of its course it is a strong stream flowing in rocky ravines. Among its feeders are the Buffalo, the Klip River, the Sunday's River, and the Bushman and Mooi Rivers. Of the other river systems in the Province the two largest are the Umzimkulu and the Umkomaas.

*The
Rivers.*

Natal is divided into ten counties, and the province of Zululand. On the coast, taken from north to south, are Victoria, the chief settlement in which is Verulam, founded by Wesleyan colonists from St. Albans; Durban; Alexandra, containing the settlement of Umzinto; and Alfred, a border district on the south, which was annexed to Natal in 1866, and whose administrative centre is the inland village of Harding. Behind the four coast counties are the two mid-land counties of Umvoti and Pietermaritzburg; Umvoti on the north-eastern side of Natal, with Greytown for its centre; and Pietermaritzburg in the centre and south. At the back of these two counties is Weenen, taking its name from the village of that name, and having Estcourt within its borders; while beyond the Tugela is Klip River county, containing the towns or villages of Ladysmith, Dundee,

*The
Counties.*

¹ The Mont aux Sources was well named by the French missionaries in Basutoland. From it the Tugela flows in one direction, and the Caledon in another.

PART III. Helpmakaar, Newcastle, and Charlestown. In the north, facing the Transvaal, are the two new counties of Utrecht and Vryheid. The country is divided for administrative purposes into thirty-one magisterial districts.

*The
Climate.*

Natal is nearer to the tropics than the southern portion of the Cape Province, and the climate of Durban is warmer than that of Capetown; but in both colonies the main factor in determining the climate is the height of a given place above the sea. In Natal there are the coast districts, the midlands, and the uplands of the north and north-west. The climate of the coast is sub-tropical, warm, and moist, the average annual temperature at Durban being 70° to 71° , and the average annual rainfall about $39\frac{1}{2}$ inches. At Pietermaritzburg, some 2,000 feet higher than Durban, the average annual temperature and rainfall are both somewhat lower, the temperature being 65° to 66° , and the rainfall 37 to 38 inches. Higher up again, on the slopes of the Drakensberg, the climate is dry and bracing, very hot under the summer sun, cold at night-time. Throughout the Province the summer season, from October to March, contributes three-quarters of the rainfall; there is a wide range of temperature, and the amount of rain varies very greatly from year to year.

Products.

On the lowlands, by the coast, subtropical products thrive. Natal is one of the sugar-growing countries, and as such is one of those territories where East Indian coolies form an important element in the population. This is perhaps its most distinctive feature as compared with other South African territories. In the counties of Victoria, Durban, and Alexandra, notably in Victoria and in the Umzinto district in Alexandra, there are some 100,000 acres under sugar cultivation. In these same coast counties a little coffee is grown, and an increasing amount of tea. The cultivation of cotton, from which much was hoped in the earlier days of the Colony, has practically ceased, but there

is hardly any tropical product which cannot be raised in the lowlands of Natal. Of grain crops, maize is universal throughout the Province, and wheat, barley, and oats are grown on the higher levels, the acreage under oats being much larger than that under wheat or barley; but, if maize and Kaffir corn be excepted, Natal can hardly claim to be as yet a grain-producing colony. All kinds of fruits and vegetables are grown, tropical and subtropical, as well as those which belong to the temperate zones; and some good timber is still to be found, though the forests have been largely cut down. The Black Wattle is being extensively planted, and its bark, which is used in tanning, has become an established article of export.

Natal has the advantage of great variety of climate within a comparatively limited area, and, as far as the fruits of the earth are concerned, the number of its products is out of all proportion to the size of the territory. But its wealth has hitherto been mainly derived from pastoral industries, and the list of exports shows that wool is still the most important product of the Province, though not so important as once it was. The sheep farms are in the midland and upland districts, in the counties of Pietermaritzburg, Umvoti, Weenen, and Klip River; and on the higher and drier lands of Weenen and Klip River angora goats are pastured. Cattle are found everywhere, but principally in the inland counties. They are valued for transport purposes, their hides are exported, and dairy farming is being carried on to an increased extent.

Natal contains a large coal-field, in the Klip River county at the northern end of the Province, the mining centres being Dundee and Newcastle.¹ Gold is found in the Tugela valley and at Umzinto. Silver, copper, lead, and iron ore all exist within the Province, and in

*Pastoral
Industries.*

*Coal.
Gold.*

¹ Newcastle does not take its name from the coal-field, but is called after the Duke of Newcastle, formerly Secretary of State for the Colonies.

PART III. the south, on the Umzimkulu River, is a field of white
—♦♦— marble.

Population. The population of Natal, including Zululand, according to the census returns of 1911, numbered in that year 974,437, or rather under thirty-nine to the square mile. The white population, including soldiers and sailors, numbered 95,904; the East Indians, 133,031; while the estimated number of natives was 738,429. The natives, therefore, outnumbered the whites in the proportion of more than seven to one, and the total coloured population exceeded the white population by more than nine to one, the excess of coloured over white men being much larger than in the Cape Province. In 1901 the population was estimated to consist of 63,821 Europeans, 786,912 natives, and 74,385 Indians. The town population of Natal is small. The two largest towns are Durban and Pietermaritzburg, the former having at the present time a population of about 90,000, of whom nearly 35,000 are Europeans and about 36,000 Indians, and Pietermaritzburg about 30,500. The strongest element numerically in the white population is British, predominating more especially in the towns. In the interior the farmers are mainly of Dutch extraction. Not a few Germans have found a home in the Colony, and such names as New Germany, Hermannsburg, New Hanover, and Kirchdorf bear witness to German settlement; while at Marburg, in Alfred county, a small colony of Norwegians has been established. The East Indians are the result of the indentured coolie system. In 1860 coolies were first imported to work under contract on the sugar plantations, and, as has been the case also in the West Indies and to a phenomenal extent in Mauritius, many of these East Indian labourers, having once arrived, have elected to stay. In 1891 the number of Indians in the Colony not under terms of indentured service was 30,000, as against 11,000 indentured coolies, the large majority living in the warm coast districts where their labour is most in

demand. In 1911 the number had risen to 133,031, but in that year indentured immigration ceased. CH. VI.
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The bulk of the native population of Natal is to be found in the native locations in various parts of the Province. These locations include in all an area not far short of 4,000 square miles. Especially on the eastern frontier towards Zululand, in the Umvoti county and on the lower Tugela, the native clans are strong. In the locations they live under their own chiefs, and to a large extent under their own laws and customs, but are supervised by European officers. There are many tribes, all of Kaffir origin, some indigenous to the soil, not a few immigrants since the days when Chaka and his Zulu warriors laid the land desolate, and a large proportion are Zulus or closely akin to the Zulus. *Natives.*

The Provincial Council consists of twenty-five members, elected by ballot to represent the same number of constituencies. The qualification for membership of the Council is the same as the electoral qualification. Electors for the Council and for the Union Parliament must be twenty-one years of age, and possess immovable property to the value of £50, or rent such property to the annual value of £10, or have resided three years in the Province with an income of not less than £96 per annum, but electors in the Vryheid and Utrecht districts who had the vote under the South African Republic continue to hold it. There is no educational qualification, nor are lunacy or pauperism or (except in the case of Parliamentary elections) military service disqualifications. But conviction for treason, murder, rape, fraud, perjury, and forgery disqualifies unless a free pardon is granted. No coloured person can be a voter unless he has resided for twelve years in Natal, been exempted from native law for seven, is recommended by three European electors, and is granted the franchise by the Governor in Council. Natives of India are also excluded on the ground that they do not enjoy the franchise in India. *The Provincial Council.*
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PART III.

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Municipalities.

There are municipal corporations in Durban, Maritzburg, Newcastle, Ladysmith, Vryheid, and Dundee, and local boards in Verulam, Greytown, Utrecht, Estcourt, Charles-town, Weenen, Harding, Paulpietersburg, and South Barrow. The municipal franchise is accorded by the law to adult males possessing immovable property of the value of £50, or who have rented for a continuous period of three months property of the annual value of £10. Indians are not excluded from the franchise, but form an insignificant part of the electorate. The Council consists of a mayor and councillors, two for each ward elected annually. The accounts are audited by elected auditors, who must under Ordinance No. 11 of 1911 be trained auditors. The powers of the councils are extended by that Ordinance, and cover the whole sphere of municipal government, including the raising of rates and loans. Their total revenue in 1911 was £847,943, their expenditure £781,537, and their debt £3,992,371.

Law.

Roman-Dutch law is the basis of the legal system of the Colony, supplemented by the laws passed by the colonial legislature, and now by the Ordinances of the Provincial Council and Acts of the Union Parliament. The law is administered by a Supreme Court consisting of a Judge President and three Puisne Judges, and by Resident Magistrates. In ordinary criminal matters the natives are amenable to the criminal law of the Province; offences of a political character or connected with native law or custom, and all civil actions between natives living under native law, are now tried by the Native High Court of the Province, or, subject to the jurisdiction of and appeal to that court, by Magistrates, while the chiefs have a limited criminal and civil jurisdiction, from which an appeal lies to the Magistrate. By Act No. 30 of 1910 the Native High Court is given jurisdiction in most criminal cases against natives, thus obviating possible unfairness on the part of European jurors.

In the year 1900-1, the revenue of the Colony amounted to CH. VI.
 £2,970,742, and in the eleven months of 1909-10 to £4,293,728. Finances.
 The chief items of the revenue were railway receipts, and customs duties.

The expenditure in 1900-1 was £2,480,932, and in 1909-10 £3,530,349.

On June 30, 1900, the net Public Debt of the Colony was somewhat over nine millions sterling, and on May 30, 1910, it was £22,686,594.

For the year ending June 30, 1901, when the War ren- Imports.
 dered the statistics abnormal, the imports and exports were as follows :—

Total value of imports by sea	£9,555,750
Value of imports from United Kingdom (about two-thirds of total)	6,523,129
Total value of exports	2,064,917
Value of exports to United Kingdom (somewhat less than half of total)	973,132

In 1909 the imports were valued at £7,135,814, and the exports at £11,277,765.

The chief products of the country which were exported were wool, sugar, coal, silver ore, and hides.

Their value in 1901 and 1909 was as follows :—

Wool	£253,938	£907,374
Sugar	113,935	16,048
Coal	408,726	909,361
Wattle bark	69,850	197,489
Hides	33,437	197,287

The export of wool has declined considerably of late years. On the other hand the export of some minor products, such as wattle bark, fruit, and tea, is rising in value. One important article of export, viz. gold, is not included in the list given above. It is Transvaal gold—not the produce of Natal; but this export has now become of great importance, as Durban is now no longer only the harbour of Natal, it has also, for practical purposes, become a port of the Transvaal.

PART III. In Natal, education is based on the English system, and is compulsory on all children between seven and fourteen years of age, residing within three miles of a Government or Government-aided school. In Government schools education is free to those who cannot pay: otherwise the fees run from 1s. to 5s. a month. In the secondary schools fees are charged varying from 10s. to 20s. a month. In 1911 there were 564 schools under Government inspection, 305 European schools, 198 native schools, 36 Indian schools, and 25 schools for coloured children, with an average enrolment of 37,393, consisting of 17,140 Europeans, 15,286 natives, 3,658 Indians, and 1,309 coloured children. The average attendance was 84 per cent. for Europeans, 86 for natives, 78 for Indians, and 82 for coloured children. Of the schools, sixty-seven have been established and are maintained exclusively by the Government. The other schools are either proprietary, denominational, or schools under the actual or nominal control of local committees receiving grants varying from £3 to £500 a year. The Indian and native schools are nearly all maintained by the religious bodies in the Province. Of the Government schools three are secondary schools, fifty-five are primary, two art schools, five Indian schools, and two schools for coloured children. At Pietermaritzburg there is a high school, a preparatory school, and four primary schools; at Durban a high school, and thirteen primary schools. Pietermaritzburg has also an art school, an Indian school, and a school for coloured children, while Durban has the other art school, the other school for coloured children, and the remaining four Indian schools.

Special grants are made in the case of children residing beyond reach of schools with a view to their boarding in the school districts. Beside the school attendance at the Government schools a number of children, estimated at 2,000, are educated in private establishments. A technical institute was established at Durban in July, 1908, and has now an

attendance of nearly 900 in the various classes. A similar institute was established at Pietermaritzburg in August, 1910, and a training college for teachers was set up in 1909, and affords teaching for some sixty teachers, mostly women. Higher education is given by the University College established in 1910, and affiliated with the University of the Cape: the Maritzburg Corporation provided a site for the college buildings at Scottsville, and the college is busily engaged, having nine professors on the staff.

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In the census figures of 1911 which cover Zululand, *Religion.* Christians muster 246,118; the Anglican Communion, which was divided by the Colenso split, counts 66,309; Wesleyan Methodists, 60,160; the Church of Rome, 22,553; Lutherans, 19,595; Presbyterians, 17,784, and African Methodist Episcopal, 16,732. The only other sect of importance is the Independents, 12,331; of the rest, 819,316 are given as having no religion, and the Indians are mainly Hindus, 108,893, or Mohammedans, 13,475. The natives are still little affected by Christianity.

PART II. ZULULAND AND TONGALAND

Up to the year 1898 Zululand was a Crown Colony of the strictest type.¹ The Governor of Natal, appointed by the Crown, was Governor also of Zululand, and legislated for Zululand by Proclamation. There was no Legislative or Executive Council. The territory was administered by a Resident Commissioner, acting under the immediate instructions of the Governor. The Resident Commissioner was also Chief Magistrate, and under him there were Resident Magistrates in the different districts. At the present time Zululand is governed as a special part of Natal under a Chief Magistrate and Resident Magistrates. Natal

¹ For the terms of transfer, see Parl. Paper, C. 8782, and Natal Act No. 49 of 1898.

PART III. law is in force, so far as it is applicable to the circumstances of Zululand; but among the natives native law and custom prevails, and the authority of the chiefs over their respective tribes or clans is recognized. They exercise a limited criminal and an extensive civil jurisdiction, subject to appeal to the Magistrates.

Area.

Zululand is bounded on the south by the Tugela and Buffalo Rivers, on the west and north-west as to its main portion by the county of Vryheid, the Transvaal and Swaziland, on the north by Portuguese territory (Amatongaland being now included in Zululand), and on the east by the Indian Ocean. The territory is very irregular in shape. It stretches furthest inland along the frontier of Klip River and Utrecht counties, the Nqutu district running out in a north-westerly direction into the Transvaal as far as the Blood River, a remnant of Zululand as it once was, before the country was dismembered and a large portion of its interior incorporated in the Vryheid district of the South African Republic, which is now annexed to Natal. On the north, too, another peninsula runs out in a due northerly direction, west of the Pongola River, and between Swaziland and Amatongaland, meeting Portuguese territory at the Usutu or Maputa River. This district includes the native territories annexed in 1895. The southernmost point of Zululand, the mouth of the Tugela River, is in about $29^{\circ} 12'$ south latitude, and its northernmost point is a little south of $26^{\circ} 30'$ south latitude. Its extreme length is between 180 and 190 miles. Its greatest breadth inland, in the Nqutu district, is about 100 miles, and in the centre of the territory, from seventy to eighty miles. The length of its coast-line may be taken very roughly to be about 210 miles. The area of the whole territory is, approximately, about 10,461 square miles, being about five-ninths of the size of the rest of Natal, including the new territories.

Geographical Features.

In Zululand, as elsewhere in South Africa, the land rises

from the coast towards the interior, but the geographical features are not so distinctly marked as, for instance, in Natal. A large proportion of the whole territory is coast region, low-lying and alluvial. Towards the north this coast-belt widens out and stretches further inland, becoming at the same time, as it nears the tropics, hotter and more unhealthy. A great part of it, amounting to about a quarter of the whole of Zululand, is, owing to malaria and cattle sickness, uninhabited. Inside this plain there is higher ground, with lines or groups of hills rising to about 2,000 feet, and behind them the country rises again towards the high veld of the Transvaal; but except in the south, where the territory runs far inland, British Zululand hardly touches the main South African plateau.

The actual coast is fringed by sand-hills, mostly covered with bush, inside which is the plain already referred to. There is no harbour, almost the only landing place being Port Durnford, in the southern part of the territory, between the mouths of the Umlalazi and Umhlutuzi Rivers, where a small stream runs down a ravine into the sea, ending in a sandy surf-beaten beach only available in fine weather. From Port Durnford the coast-line runs due north-east to Cape St. Lucia, near the mouth of the Umfolosi River, where it turns more towards the north outside the large lagoon known as Lake St. Lucia. This lake is separated from the open sea by a strip of land, whose average breadth is three miles, with sand-hills rising to a height of from 300 to 500 feet. About half-way in its course, but nearer the southern than the northern end, is a further inlet known as False Bay. St. Lucia Lake is about thirty-five miles in length, with an average breadth of ten miles. It is little more than a muddy swamp, nine to ten feet deep, fed by various rivers, unhealthy, and hardly accessible. Its area has been estimated at 680 square miles. Its opening to the sea is at its southern end, by St. Lucia Bay and St. Lucia River, the river being

*Lake
St. Lucia*

PART III. a channel, about twelve miles long, parallel to the sea, with
 ——— an opening entirely blocked by sand in the dry season, and in time of flood obstructed by breakers on a shallow and impossible bar. At the southernmost corner of the lake is a tract of dense bush, known as the Dukuduku forest, covering an area of 130 square miles, a mixture of swamp and reeds, a refuge in time of war, but not a living place for either white or black men. Immediately north of St. Lucia Bay is the inlet known as Sordwana Bay. It is not a bay, but merely an opening in the coast which communicates with two small and shallow lagoons, useless for any purposes of communication between land and sea. Thus the coast-line of Zululand is very unfavourable. Where there are not regular cliffs there are sand-hills, and where there are openings and river mouths they are blocked with sand, and, in the north, lead only into swamps.

Sordwana Bay.

Rivers.

There is a large number of rivers in the territory. Most of them have short courses, and most of them vary between torrents in the rainy season and little more than rivulets in the dry. Inland, as they come down from the mountains, they flow with a strong current in deep channels, and when they reach the coast level, the majority of them lose themselves in marsh and lagoon. The southernmost and largest is the Tugela, the border river between Zululand and Natal. North of the Tugela are the Amatikulu, the Umlalazi, and the Umhlutuzi, the last-named river flowing into a small lagoon, a little north of Port Durnford. Next comes the Umfolosi, the main river of central Zululand, formed by the confluence, at a point thirty miles from the coast, of a northern tributary, the Black Umfolosi, and a southern tributary, the White Umfolosi. The combined streams flow into the southernmost extremity of St. Lucia Lake. In the north of Zululand are two rivers, which rise in the Transvaal and cross the line of the Ubombo Mountains. The more southerly of the two, the Mkusi, flows west and

east and enters the northern end of St. Lucia Lake. The other, the Pongola, after crossing the Ubombo range, flows almost due north until it joins the Maputa River running into Delagoa Bay.

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The Zululand rivers, with the exception of the Pongola, flow west and east. The mountains are difficult to define and describe. With the exception of the Ubombo or the Lebombo Mountains, they are not so much mountain ranges as groups of high land, with here and there isolated tops such as the Isandhlwana Hill. The Ubombo Mountains form a distinct line, running due north and south, and separating the northern end of Zululand from Swaziland and from the Transvaal. Their height does not exceed 2,000 feet; they are more precipitous on the western than on the eastern side; and below the Mkusi Poort, where the Mkusi River finds its way through the range, they slope away in undulating ground into the plain which surrounds the St. Lucia Lake. Further south, and near the frontier of the Transvaal, are the Ubani Hills; and to the south again, in the Ndwandwe district, there is a short range of hills or mountains known as the Nongoma range, like the Ubombo, running north and south and more precipitous on the western side than on the east. Below the headwaters of the White Umfolosi are the Emtonjaneni Hills on the western frontier, while near the sea, behind Port Durnford, are the Ingoye Hills, well wooded on their upper levels. Again, further south, where British Zululand stretches furthest into the interior, there are several clusters of mountains or hills, one behind the other. On the inland side of Eshowe are the Entumeni Hills, rising to nearly 3,000 feet. Immediately behind them are the Nkandhla uplands, rising to a height of 4,500 feet, thickly wooded in parts, having deep ravines and flat-topped hills with precipitous sides, the almost impenetrable strongholds of native clans. In this country Cetewayo found a hiding-place when fleeing from the

The Mountains.

PART III. British forces, and it served a similar purpose for Bambata and his followers in the rising of 1906. North-west of this difficult broken country, near the junction of the Tugela and Buffalo Rivers, are the Kyudeni Hills, also forest-clad and rising to a height of from 4,500 to 5,000 feet; while furthest inland is the Nqutu range, running east and west across the innermost district of the territory, and cutting the communication with Vryheid and Utrecht, now a part of Natal. Zululand, in short, may be said to consist of plain and swamp near the sea, most extensive in the north; of hill slopes and valleys of rivers inside the plain; and, on the inner frontier, of high table-land, more or less open except in the south, where the mountains are highest, the country is most broken up, and the forests are most extensive.

The Dis-
tricts.

The districts into which Zululand is divided for magisterial and administrative purposes are, in the south, the Nqutu district which is furthest inland, the Nkandhla district, the Eshowe district, and the district of Mtunzini. All these districts border on Natal, separated from it by the Tugela and Buffalo Rivers. Next come the two districts of central Zululand, the Emtongweni district inland bordering on Vryheid, and the Lower Umfolosi district touching the sea. North of these two districts are the districts of Mahlabatini, Ndzwandwe and Hlabisa, and further north again is the Ubombo district, and the district formed out of the annexed Trans-Pongola territories, which bears the name of Ingwavuma. Within the limits of the Emtongweni district, between the upper waters of the Umhlathuzi and the White Umfolosi Rivers, and abutting on the Vryheid district of the colony, was the area known as Proviso B. It was a part of Zululand in which Boer farmers had established themselves between the years 1882 and 1886; and when, in the last-named year, it was excluded from what was then the New Republic, but was till recently the Vryheid district of the Transvaal, the Boer occupants were, by a special

proviso, left in undisturbed possession of their farms subject to a nominal quit-rent. CH. VI.

The chief township in Zululand is Eshowe, with a population of about 600 whites, and the only other township in the territory, deserving the name, is Melmoth in the Emtonjaneni district. The two are connected by the main road of Zululand, which enters from Natal by the lower Tugela drift, is carried north and north-west by a somewhat circuitous route, now being rectified, through Eshowe and Melmoth, passes due north through the Ndwandwe district, and finally enters the Transvaal. There are other roads in existence, a coast road in the lowlands, and, far inland, roads that start from Rorke's Drift, while a railway runs to Somkele, the centre for the St. Lucia coal-fields: but Zululand is still in its infancy as an organized territory, and it has yet to reap the advantages of good communication by road and rail, of easy gradients over its mountains, and bridges over its rivers. It may be added that Ulundi, the old royal kraal, is situated a little to the north of the White—the southern Umfolosi, and that the valleys drained by the two Umfolosi rivers, together with the hills and ravines of the Nkandhla district, may be taken as having been in the past the special strongholds of the Zulu race. Townships.

A report on the forests of Zululand by Colonel Cardew, *Forests.* published early in 1891¹, divides them into high timber forest, thorn bush, and coast forest. The finest high timber forests are in the south, on the Kyudeni, Nkandhla, and Ingoye Hills, and in the neighbourhood of Eshowe. They contain yellow wood and hard timber of various kinds, such as is found in Natal also, but the valuable trees at the time when the report was written had been sadly diminished by indiscriminate felling, and matters have not improved since. The thorn bush or mimosa trees grow on lower levels, in the valleys, and clothing the banks of the rivers; while the coast forests,

¹ Colonial Reports, Miscellaneous, No. 2, C. 6270-1, April, 1891.

PART III. stunted in size but with a dense undergrowth and interspersed with palms, are found in patches along the sand-hills which line the coast, and near the mouths of the rivers, the most extensive tract of this bush or forest being the Dukuduku.

Climate. The climate of the coast districts in Zululand is semi-tropical, and, owing to the prevalence of swamp and lagoon, malarious and unhealthy—more so than is the case with the coast country in Natal. The highlands are far healthier, often very cold and bleak in the winter season, from March to September, which is also the dry season. The prevailing wind is from the south-east, but now and again a hot wind from the north-west blows over the inland districts. In the summer season thunderstorms are frequent, and heavy rains make the rivers impassable.

Pastoral Pursuits. The soil of the country, except in the coast-belt, is not rich. The Zulus are a pastoral people, and their main wealth has hitherto consisted in cattle; but a kind of cattle disease, especially in the lowlands, has of late years diminished their stock. Sheep thrive on the highlands, though grass is often scarce in winter, and near the coast in the south of Zululand, outside the zone of bush and swamp. The area under cultivation has increased of late years, losses in cattle having induced the Zulus, especially near the Natal frontier, to pay more attention to tilling the ground. They are taking to the use of the plough, whereas till recent years cultivation was confined to small garden plots broken up by Kaffir hoes in the hands of women. A drawback to agriculture is, as usual, the occasional appearance of swarms of locusts. The crops, such as they are, consist chiefly of maize, Kaffir corn or millet, sweet potatoes, and tobacco. The same sub-tropical products that are grown on the coast-line in Natal can be grown also in the southern coast districts of Zululand, and the land is gradually being opened for planting industries under European management.

Mining. Mining is making way in Zululand, gold and coal having



both been found in considerable quantities. The gold-fields contain alluvial gold as well as gold-bearing quartz reefs and banket beds. There are gold-fields in the north-west of Zululand, viz. the Nondweni gold-fields in the Nqutu district ; in the west near Ulundi, and near Melmoth in the Emtonjaneni district, and on the upper waters of the Umhlatuzi and Insuzi Rivers in the Nkandhla district, the gold being mainly found not far from the border of the Transvaal. But the output is as yet trifling. The coal measures are in the north-west in the Nqutu and Kyudeni hills, and also, in the form of anthracite coal, in the Hlabisa district near St. Lucia Bay. Zululand contains also iron, copper, and other minerals, but they have not yet been worked.

From the date when it was proclaimed a British Colony, *Revenue.* Zululand made steady progress, and the annual revenue, so long as it remained separate, more than covered the ordinary expenditure. In 1888, the first full year of its existence as a British Colony, the revenue amounted to nearly £33,000 ; in 1894 to over £45,000 ; in 1895 to nearly £52,000 ; in 1896, additional territory being now included, to nearly £60,000. The main source of revenue was the hut tax paid by the natives, which yielded more than two-thirds of the total annual receipts. By special arrangement Natal took the customs duties on goods which entered Zululand across her border, and paid in lieu to the Zululand administration a sum of £1,800 per annum. The land revenue was growing in consequence of the opening up of the gold-fields, and postal receipts showed an increase. On the expenditure side, the civil administration, including the Zululand police and public works, were the principal items ; the net result being a considerable balance on the right side and no Public Debt. Owing to the annexation of Zululand to Natal, the accounts of the territory are no longer kept separate. Even while Zululand was separate from Natal there were no trade returns owing to the arrangement afore-

PART III. said, by which all customs dues on the southern frontier were
—♦— paid in Natal.

Population. The native population of Zululand in 1901 was estimated at about 196,500, and there were over eleven hundred European residents. In 1911 the native population was 217,486 and the European only 2,120. The very large majority of the natives are Zulus, but there is also in the Nqutu district a sprinkling of the Basuto race. The Zulus are showing themselves intelligent and not devoid of enterprise, seeking work and making money in many cases beyond their own land, more especially in the gold-fields of the Transvaal.

*Missions
and Edu-
cation.*

Four Christian mission agencies have been for some time established in Zululand, by the English Church, the Norwegian Missionary Society, the Church of Norway Mission Society, and the Swedish Missionary Society. The Salvation Army also has a mission in Zululand, and the Roman Catholics have begun mission work in the territory. The schools are subsidized by the Government, and education has hitherto been entirely conducted on the grant-in-aid system. The English Church has the largest number of schools, including one industrial school at Eshowe, and one school at the same place for European children only. The Norwegian missionaries have also an industrial school at Eshowe, in which the natives are taught artisans' work in wood and iron. The growing increase in the European population due to the gold discoveries is creating a demand for more schools, and future years should show a considerable advance in educational work.

*Develop-
ment of the
Country.*

So far the record of Zululand under British government has been distinctly satisfactory, and the condition of the people is wonderfully different from what it was in Chaka's days or under the later rule of Cetewayo. No longer organized to destroy, no longer banded in regiments or forbidden to marry except in accordance with the will of a fighting despot, the Zulu people, despite the rising of 1906

and the subsequent unrest, have lived, in the main, in contentment and peace, and the strong qualities which made them a terror to their neighbours are now finding play, under European guidance, in the continuous development of the country and the steady improvement of its people.

CH. VI.
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TONGALAND

Between the north-eastern frontier of Zululand and Portuguese territory, and between the Pongola River and the sea, lies that portion of Tongaland which since 1898 has been a part of Natal, and is incorporated in the Ingwavuma district of Zululand.¹ The country and the people are still not very well known. Its area is approximately about 1,660 square miles, and the district of which it forms part contains about fifty Europeans and 26,000 natives. On its coast, in 26° 53' south latitude, is the opening of the Kosi River, which has been sometimes talked of as a possible port in the future. The country is a continuation of the lowlands of northern Zululand, not rising above 300 feet, sandy and swampy, thickly wooded in the interior, but badly watered and very unhealthy. In the wet season, from October or November to May or June, it is a fever-stricken land, to be shunned by Europeans. Less warlike than the Zulus and not of such fine physique, the Amatonga or Maputas, as they are also called, are more intelligent and more industrious, skilful with their hands, cultivating the ground to a much larger extent than the Zulus, and also going forth to work in Natal, the gold-fields, or at Delagoa Bay. Mealies or maize, millet, and ground-nuts are the chief articles of food, and palm wine is extracted from the trunks of the wild palms. Cattle thrive in the land, but not horses, and wild game of various kinds was, till recent times, to be found in the jungle. The trade of the country has been hitherto principally with Delagoa Bay.

¹ See Parl. Paper, C. 8782.

CHAPTER VII

THE TRANSVAAL AND SWAZILAND

PART III. THE boundaries of the Transvaal Province are, in the
—♦— main, those of the old South African Republic, as settled by
The Boundaries. a series of conventions between the British Crown and the
Boers of the Transvaal. The Sand River Convention of
January 17, 1852, referred to the territory north of the Vaal
River, and left the line from the source of that river to the
Drakensberg to be settled at some future date. The bound-
ary with Portugal was fixed by a treaty of July 29, 1869,
which was confirmed by a subsequent treaty of December 11,
1875, and further confirmed by the Queen as suzerain of
the Transvaal on October 7, 1882. After the annexation
of 1879 and the rising which followed, the boundaries of the
Transvaal were laid down in the Pretoria Convention of
August 3, 1881, which carefully specified the borders towards
Griqualand West, Natal, Zululand, Swaziland, Portugal, Mata-
beleland, and Bechuanaland. The Convention of London of
February 27, 1884, specified fresh boundaries, and required
the Boers not to transgress these limits. On October 22,
1886, an agreement as to the boundary was made by the
United Kingdom with the settlers in Zululand who had set
up the New Republic, and consequent on the agreement
come to between that Republic and the South African
Republic on September 14, 1887, a new Convention, ratified
on June 28, 1888, added this territory to the Transvaal, and
redefined the boundaries of the South African Republic.
In return for the increase in the area of the South African
Republic thus accorded, the Government of the Republic dis-

claimed any right to a Protectorate over Zululand. A further change was made by Article 24 of a Convention of 1890 regarding Swaziland, in which the United Kingdom recognized the incorporation of the territory known as the Little Free State¹ in the South African Republic. This marked the farthest extension of the territory of the Republic proper, though the Convention of December 10, 1894, allowed the Republic to exercise jurisdiction over Swaziland, and converted that territory practically into an annexe of the Republic. The territory of the Transvaal Province is, however, less than that of the Republic by the loss of the two districts of Utrecht and Vryheid which were disannexed from it, and annexed to Natal after the Boer War.

In the treaty of 1869 between the Transvaal and Portugal the boundary of the Portuguese possession of Delagoa Bay was stated to be on the south, a line drawn from a point in 26° 30' south latitude to the Lebombo range, then along the summit of those mountains as far as the pass of the River Komati, thence north-north-east to the mountain called Pokioen's Kop, on the north side of the Oliphants River, thence north-north-west to the nearest point of the Sierra di Chicundo, and thence in a straight line to the junction of the Limpopo and Pafori Rivers. This boundary was delimited from 1887 to 1894 by a Portuguese and Boer Commission, but no definitive settlement was arrived at. The portion from Komati Poort to the beacon at the Nellmapius Road to Lorenzo Marques, where it crosses the Lebombo Mountains was beaconsed off in 1887, and recognized in practice as the boundary, and the portion from the poort to the Singwetse was also beaconsed off in 1890. The line to be drawn to the junction of the Limpopo and Pafori Rivers is a matter of dispute, and the question of the line along the summit of the

¹ This was a small area of under 20,000 acres, which had been occupied by Boers under grants from the Swazi King since 1875; see Parl. Paper, C. 6200, p. 134.

PART III. Lebombo is unsettled. The so-called mountain is a plateau varying from one to twenty miles in width without any well-defined summit, but falling more steeply to the east. The Transvaal claimed the plateau right up to the brow, leaving to Portugal the whole of the eastern slopes.

PART I. THE TRANSVAAL

Area.

The area of the Transvaal is about 110,425 square miles, or rather less than that of the United Kingdom. Stretching from about 22° to $28^{\circ} 40'$ south latitude, the Transvaal penetrates at its extreme north into the torrid zone, and would, in the ordinary course of things, be a sub-tropical country. In fact, however, its high level above the sea causes its temperature to be lower than it would otherwise be. The climate is what is termed 'continental,' being subject to greater extremes of temperature than are found in regions exposed to marine influences. The climatic conditions are explained by the physical characteristics. On the east there is a steep mountain chain, which intercepts the warm rain-bearing trade winds which come from the Indian Ocean. Beyond this mountain range there is a plateau, stretching with little interruption across the mainland to the Atlantic Ocean, which is exposed to the cold Antarctic currents. The rainfall of South Africa increases in amount passing from west to east, the two extremes being Namaqualand and Natal; the former of which is almost rainless, while the maximum in Natal is as much as 44 inches. In the Transvaal the average rainfall is from 14 inches to 24 inches. Although the Transvaal suffers from scarcity of water, it appeared to the first trekkers coming from the desert Karroo of the south a land of plenty and greenness. It is described as 'a great natural park, with clumps of mimosa here and there, growing thickest near the water-courses.' The prevailing feature is the recurrence of great rolling plains. Low mountain ranges

or isolated hills sometimes occur, but the general altitude of the plains prevents these from appearing other than slight elevations. CH. VII. —♦—

Although it is for the most part a vast tableland, its different districts present features of a distinct character. *The Agricultural Divisions.* For agricultural purposes there may be noted five main divisions. First, there is the dolomite region, with a formation of magnesian limestone. This embraces all the country within lines roughly joining Vereeniging, Heidelberg, Bethal, Pretoria, Rustenburg, Zeerust, Lichtenburg, Klerksdorp, and the Vaal River from Klerksdorp to Vereeniging. Its area is about 15,000 square miles. There is a further considerable stretch of dolomite country in the Lydenburg district. Altogether almost one-fifth of the whole of the Province is under this formation. The special characteristic of the dolomite is its immense natural reservoirs. This formation runs along the Witwaterberg between Pretoria and Johannesburg, and westward for a distance of some 200 miles. Wherever it prevails, there is the possibility of an abundant water-supply such as is found at Pretoria. Next, there is the high veld, which lies to the east of the dolomite region, and may be said to be enclosed by lines drawn roughly from Vereeniging to Heidelberg, Pretoria, Belfast, Amsterdam, Vryheid, Volksrust, Standerton, and the line of the Vaal River. It consists of undulating plains of grass with a few hills rising out of the general level. 'If one were to imagine the Midlands of England, without fences, without fields or trees, and without homesteads or villages, one would have a good idea of this veld.'¹ It lies between 4,700 feet and 5,700 feet above sea-level, and the winters are very cold and dry. The average rainfall is about 21 inches, which for the most part falls in the months of January, February, and March.

¹ Report of Mr. Willcocks on 'Irrigation in South Africa', in *Further Correspondence relating to affairs of South Africa*. Cd. 1163, 1902.

PART III. The bush veld lies to the north of the dolomite region.

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The Bush Veld. It is almost entirely covered with a dense scrub. It affords excellent grazing for cattle, but is unsuited for sheep or horses. The district suffers generally from want of water. The low veld lies to the north and east of the bush veld and the high veld. The bush and the low veld taken together include the lands lying generally below 3,500 feet above sea-level and north of the twenty-sixth degree of latitude. The low veld is, for the most part, well supplied with water, and capable of extensive irrigation. It is well suited for the production of tropical plants, but its development has been hindered by the unhealthiness of its climate for Europeans.

The South-West Corner. Different in character from these divisions is the south-west corner of the Transvaal. It lies to the south-west of a line joining Lichtenburg and Klerksdorp. It covers some 10,000 square miles, and is for the most part about 4,000 feet above the sea. It consists of a light sandy loam, and is generally level.

The Mountains. The principal mountain ranges are the Lebombo Mountains which border Zululand and Portuguese East Africa, and the continuation of the Drakensberg, parallel with the coast, which culminates in the Mauchberg (near Lydenburg), the highest point in the Transvaal. The chief rivers are the Limpopo and the Vaal. The Limpopo describes a semicircle of nearly 1,000 miles between its source south-west of Pretoria and its mouth to the north-east of Delagoa Bay. The defective rainfall, however, and the existence of falls 100 miles from its mouth, prevent the use of the river for navigation purposes. The Vaal rises on the western slope of the Drakensberg Mountains, and after forming for most of its course the southern boundary of the Transvaal joins the Orange River in Griqualand West.

Malaria. The climate as a whole is very healthy. Malaria prevails in the low country, and in parts of the bush veld the

climate is not suitable to Europeans. In the high veld, however, it is exceptionally healthy. The summer heat is tempered by the rain which falls in these months (October to March), and the winter months (April to September) are very dry and bracing. In the north of the Transvaal in the districts of Zoutpansberg, Barberton, and Lydenburg are highlands which, though very damp and differing in character from the high veld, are yet not unhealthy for Europeans. CH. VII.

For purposes of administration the Province is divided into twenty-three districts, the most important of which are *The Districts.* Johannesburg, Germiston, Boksburg, and Krugersdorp, making up the Rand. 'The Rand' is a narrow strip extending for about forty miles from Krugersdorp in the west to Springs in the east, Johannesburg being in its centre. It is situated on nearly the highest elevation in South Africa, and forms the watershed in this region between the Indian and South Atlantic Oceans. The whole strip is covered with mines and mining towns or villages. Johannesburg, standing nearly 5,700 feet above the sea, dates from 1886. In 1887 the population was about 3,000, in 1890 about 26,300, and in 1896 over 102,000. In 1911 it had risen to 237,104, 119,953 being white. The total gold production of the Transvaal from 1884 to the end of July, 1909, is put down in value as £245,317,490, and the number of ounces to the end of 1911 was 78,714,775. In 1911 the value of the gold produced was £35,041,485, and the estimate for 1912 was £38,757,560.

The country districts, starting from the south and from east to west, are Wolmaransstad, Lichtenburg, Bloemhof, Potchefstroom, Heidelberg, Standerton, Wakkerstroom, Piet Retief, Ermelo, Bethal, Marico, Rustenburg, Pretoria, Middelburg, Barberton, Carolina, Lydenburg, Waterberg, Zoutpansberg.

The Transvaal is exceptionally rich in its mineral resources. *Minerals.* As has been seen above, the output of gold exceeds that of

PART III. any other country. Apart from the Rand, gold-mining is carried on at Barberton, in the north, near the Portuguese frontier, and elsewhere. Gold is said to be distributed throughout the Drakensberg, in the northern Zoutpansberg and Waterberg, and in the western Rustenburg and Marico districts. There are also valuable deposits of coal, iron, copper, lead, cobalt, sulphur, and saltpetre. In 1911 coal was produced to the value of over £1,020,539. The bulk of the coal produced comes from Brakpan, Vereeniging, and Middelburg.

Agriculture.

‘Agriculture has scarcely been attempted except on the most primitive lines and on the most insignificant areas. Farmers to-day trek from the high veld to the low veld and back again with the seasons, just as the wandering Arabs of the desert have done for centuries.’¹ This was prior to the war. In the valleys of the high veld oats, mealies, Kaffir-corn and many vegetables can be grown without irrigation, and already round Johannesburg the land has for some time for a considerable distance been cultivated, and market-gardening has become an important industry. Taking, however, the Province as a whole, agriculture is still in a very undeveloped condition, and the cause of this lies in the scarcity of water. ‘The rainfall is not only erratic and uncertain at the times most opportune for sowing, but is constant and heavy in autumn. Autumn again is quickly followed by a very severe and frosty winter without a particle of moisture in the air. When rain is wanted it is generally not there; when it is not wanted it is invariably present.’² Moreover, the Boers were naturally a pastoral people, and the size of the farms has been so large as to render agriculture almost impossible. Subsequently to the war encouragement was given to the small capitalist. Small land colonies were placed in good districts with an adequate water-supply, and within a reasonable distance of railways

¹ Mr. Willcocks’s Report.

² Ibid.

and markets. The size of the farms differed according to the nature of the district and the capital of the individual, for fruit and tobacco farming about twenty acres being sufficient, while from 2,000 to 3,000 acres were required for stock-farming. The work done under the Settlers' Ordinance, 1902, was entrusted in 1906 to the Land Settlement Board, which remained in existence for five years from July 1, 1907. A certain number of settlers were thus permanently established, and from the loan of £5,000,000 under an Imperial guarantee authorized in 1907, expenditure was made on a Land and Agricultural Bank and on other agricultural work with considerable success. It is clear, now, that the general future of agriculture in the Province is closely bound up with the development of irrigation; there being no question of the fertility of much of the land could the needful water be obtained. Fortunately the water-supply appears to be sufficient if directed in the proper channels. Another hindrance to agriculture is the swarms of locusts which from time to time sweep over the plateau region throughout the Province, but which have since 1909 been less troublesome.

The Transvaal is eminently a land of flocks and herds, *Pastoral Pursuits.* but here too it has suffered from the want of enterprise of its people. It has been pointed out that if sufficient winter crops were grown with the aid of the rainfall, and the stock herded in winter in cattle and sheep folds, sheltered by groves of trees, it would be possible to dispense with the annual trek. In many districts, however, stock are subject to peculiar diseases, and belts of the low veld are infested by tsetse fly.

The large game which was once so plentiful has now *Game.* almost disappeared; lions, which in the time of the first trekkers were numerous, being now rarely seen. The hippopotamus and the crocodile are still found in the Limpopo River, but the eland, springbok, giraffe, and zebra have well-nigh vanished from the Transvaal plateau, and have given place to cattle, sheep, and horses.

PART III. There was no authentic census of the population under republican rule. An estimate before the war put the total white population at about 180,000; of whom 63,000 were Boers, and 87,000 Uitlanders. In 1904 the census gave 297,277 whites, and 972,674 coloured, and in 1911 the figures were 420,562 and 1,265,650. Of the latter 1,219,845 were of the Bantu races, 22,655 coloured, and 10,048 Indians. The density of population varies from 1.310 a mile in the Johannesburg district to 4.73 in the Waterberg, and the Barberton, Bloemhof, Carolina, Lichtenburg, Marico, Rustenburg and Wolmaransstad districts have all under ten persons to a square mile.

Government.

The Provincial Administration is conducted by the Administrator and the Executive Committee of the Provincial Council. The Council consists of thirty-six members, elected each for one constituency, by an electorate which includes all adult males, native born or naturalized British subjects, who have resided six months in the Province. There is no property or education qualification, nor is lunacy a disqualification. But electors must be European and must not have received poor relief, and conviction for murder, treason, rape, theft, fraud, perjury or forgery is a bar unless a free pardon has been granted. Soldiers on Imperial full pay are also denied the franchise. The average number of voters for each member was in 1911 3,196, as compared with 2,913 in the Cape, of whom 453 were other than white. For the Councils of Natal and the Free State the figures were 1,189 and 1,530 respectively. Under the redistribution of the seats of the Assembly of the Union in accordance with the census nine more seats fall to be added to the Council.

Law and Justice.

The law of the Province is Roman-Dutch law as modified by the laws of the South African Republic, the Proclamations and Ordinances passed under Crown Colony administration, the Acts of the legislature under responsible government, and now by the Ordinances of the Provincial Council and the

Acts of the Parliament of the Union. Justice is administered by the Provincial Division of the Supreme Court of the Union, consisting of a Judge President and six judges, and there is a Local Divisional Court for the Witwatersrand, consisting of a judge of the Supreme Court. That court has unlimited criminal jurisdiction and a wide civil jurisdiction within the Witwatersrand area; since the Union appeals from it lie in most cases to the Appellate Division, formerly they lay to the Supreme Court of the Transvaal. In cases between natives in these courts and also in the inferior courts of Resident Magistrates and Special Justices of the Peace the native law must be regarded in so far as it does not work injustice or is not in conflict with the principles of natural justice.¹ Tribal chiefs exercise a limited jurisdiction.

Municipal government in the Transvaal hardly existed before the war, and was created in the principal towns by Ordinances enacted in 1903 (No. 58) and 1904 (No. 41) under the Crown Colony administration. These Ordinances, as subsequently amended and consolidated by Ordinances No. 8 and No. 9 of 1912, establish a municipal franchise in the case of Town Councils, of which in 1912 there were eighteen, of ownership of rateable property of the assessed value of £100 or occupation of rateable property of the assessed value of £300, or residence for a period of twelve months; but the franchise is, like the parliamentary franchise, restricted to white adults, being denied both to aliens and to coloured British subjects. Councillors hold office for three years, retiring by rotation once a year in each ward, and each ward is represented by three councillors. The election of councillors is by ballot, and in all the towns the English procedure in the case of municipal elections is closely followed. By Act No. 23 of 1909 the principle of proportional representation with the single transferable vote

*Municipal
Govern-
ment.*

¹ See Law No. 4 of 1885, Proclamation No. 21 of 1902, s. 58. and *Mogale v. Mogale* [1912] T.P. 92.

PART III. was adopted as regards elections in Pretoria and Johannesburg and Roodepoort-Maraisburg, and the results of these elections were quoted freely by the supporters of the principle of proportional representation and appeared in these cases at least not to be unsatisfactory. But the Ordinance No. 8 of 1912 abolishes the system entirely. There are also under the Ordinance of 1912 at present nineteen municipalities for which village councils only exist with reduced powers. For these the voters are all white adults, owning property or occupying property of the gross value of £6 a year or upwards. Women are not eligible for membership of town or village Councils.

Provision is made by legislation of 1905-6 as amended in 1912 for the creation of health committees where the density of population renders it desirable in semi-urban areas to secure the observance of sanitary measures, and eleven of these committees have been established. There is as yet no general system of local government by divisions as at the Cape, magistrates dealing with many administrative matters which are elsewhere subjects of popular control. The introduction of responsible government saw also the revival of the old system of field cornets who assist the magistrates in the administration of laws in their districts. It also saw the creation of local boards to assist the Government in matters of education, the maintenance of roads, regulation of water in public streams and prevention of cattle disease, and these boards are now continued under the Union, being responsible to the Provincial Administration in matters within its powers, and to the Union in other matters. Their duties as to diseases of cattle and the control of water in streams are affected by the Union legislation of 1911-12.

The control of municipal affairs appertains under the constitution of the Union primarily to the Provincial Administration and the Provincial Council, which has passed an elaborate Ordinance in 1912 dealing with this subject. Under the

existing legislation the control is mainly confined to audit of CH. VII.
accounts, the sanctioning of loans and local improvement
schemes and the alienation of municipal property, the sanc-
tion and revocation of by-laws, and intervention in cases
where the municipality fails to carry out its duties. ———

The revenue for the year ending June 30, 1903, was *Revenue*
£4,683,206, and the expenditure £5,863,062. The Public *and Ex-*
Debt was, on May 30, 1910, £32,317,591. For the eleven *penditure.*
months of 1909-10 the figures were £5,585,637 and
£5,974,491. In 1902 the imports of merchandise amounted
to the value of £13,067,671, and the exports to £7,431,632.
In 1909 imports were valued at £19,693,615 and the prin-
cipal exports at £32,411,721, including gold, £30,660,886 ;
diamonds, £1,239,149 ; skins, hides and hoofs, £194,207 ;
tobacco, £101,574 ; horses and mules, £98,189 ; coal,
£43,841 ; tin, £37,162 ; wool, £30,922, and lead, £5,791.

Since the annexation of the Transvaal much has been *Education.*
done to extend education. Even in 1905 the total attendance
of children did not amount to more than two-thirds of those
of eligible age, but since that date the percentage has greatly
increased. The Education Law of 1907 requires compulsory
attendance for all those who have reasonable access to a
school. In place of the eleven state-aided schools existing in
1896, there were in operation on December 31, 1911, 704
Government or Government-aided schools with a total en-
rolment of 54,887 scholars. Of these six were high schools
with an enrolment of 2,396 persons. There were eleven
schools for coloured children with an enrolment of 1,639
pupils. The South African School of Mines and Technology
at Johannesburg, opened in 1904, provides advanced theo-
retical and practical instruction in mining, engineering, archi-
tecture, and other arts, and will undoubtedly contribute an
element to the South African University of the future.
Courses in arts and science are provided by the Transvaal
University College at Pretoria.

PART III. The education of the native races was provided for in 1911 by 244 native schools with 13,367 pupils, and one Government school with an enrolment of 214. The burden is borne by missionary enterprise with subsidies from the Government. At the training colleges at Kilnerton, Pietersburg, Bathsabelo and Lemana 236 native students were being trained in 1911 for the teaching profession.

The system of education established by the Act of 1907 contemplated that in the first three standards children should be taught through the medium of their native language, but English was to be gradually introduced, and no child was to be promoted from one standard to another unless it knew enough English. Dutch was to be taught to all children unless their parents objected. After the completion of the third standard teaching was to be mainly in English, but Dutch might be the medium in not more than two subjects in addition to the learning of Dutch as a language. The Ordinance of 1911 substitutes for this the system now adopted in the Cape and the Free State and described above.

Daily classes commence with prayer and with the reading of a portion of the Bible, but no doctrine or dogma may be taught in any public school, and children may not receive Bible instruction against the wishes of their parents.

Religion.

Of the total population in 1911 696,862 were Christian, including 307,591 coloured persons and natives. Of the Christian denominations the Dutch denominations claim 228,692; the Anglican community, 141,160; the Wesleyan Methodists, 102,119; Lutherans, 95,150; Presbyterians, 31,409; and the Church of Rome, 27,485; the Congregationalists and African Methodist Episcopal have over 17,000 each, and the Berlin Mission nearly 11,000. The Baptists with 8,339 are the only other important Christian sect. There were 25,892 Jews, 4,462 Hindus, and 8,193 Mohammedans. Nearly 945,000 were classified as having no religion.

PART II. SWAZILAND

The intimate connexion of Swaziland with the Transvaal renders it convenient to treat of it here, though, unlike the Transvaal, it forms no part of the Union of South Africa. CH. VII.
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The inhabitants of Swaziland are doubtless the descendants of one branch of the Bantu invaders of South Africa, and their consolidation into a nation dates from early in the eighteenth century, when the adoption of a military organization resulted in one tribe obtaining domination over the rest. Their relations with the Zulus were usually hostile, and their independence was threatened also by the position of the Transvaal on their borders. In the conventions with the Transvaal of 1881 and 1884 the British Government expressly stipulated for the independence of the Swazis. But already in 1878 the influx of European concession hunters into the territory had begun, and by 1888 an attempt was made by these men to set up within the native government a separate government for Europeans, the paramount chief, Mbandini, giving them a concession for this purpose. This first attempt at self-government broke down at the end of the year, and in the following year, which saw the death of Mbandini, the Transvaal and British Governments sent a joint commission to report on affairs. The result of this report was the establishment of a provisional Administration consisting of representatives of the British and Republican Governments, to whom Mr. Theophilus Shepstone was shortly afterwards added as representative of the Swazi people. This Commission was recognized by an order of the paramount chief in council of December, 1889, and a convention of July 24, 1890, between the British Government and the Republican Government, recognized the Commission as the governing body in Swaziland, and approved the establishment of a Chief Court with the special purpose

History.

The Joint Commission.

PART III. of dealing with the innumerable concessions of every kind and sort which the paramount chief had granted. The court was formally recognized by organic proclamations of Swaziland of September 13 and November 29, 1890, and it acted up to 1893, disposing of many concessions. In that year a new convention authorized the Republican Government to obtain an organic proclamation from the Swazi people conferring on the Republic powers of protection, administration, legislation, and jurisdiction, but the Swazi chiefs would not sign the proclamation, and instead a new convention of December 10, 1894, allowed the Republic to assume the proposed powers over Swaziland without the approval of the chiefs, but subject to certain conditions intended to safeguard the rights of the natives. This jurisdiction was assumed and exercised by the Republic until the outbreak of war in 1899 resulted in the abandonment of the country, and a period of comparative anarchy followed, marked by a recrudescence of killing of alleged practisers of witchcraft.

The Convention of 1894.

The Establishment of Control.

In 1902, however, a British Special Commissioner, with a force of the South African Constabulary, was sent from the Transvaal to occupy the territory, and an Order in Council of June, 1903, placed the power to administer and legislate for Swaziland in the hands of the Governor of the Transvaal for the time being. In 1904 the Administration was formally constituted by Lord Milner by Proclamation No. 3, under which the authority of the Governor was in administrative and judicial matters conferred on the Commissioner, with the title of Resident Magistrate, and the territory was assimilated in most respects to a district of the Transvaal. At the same time this Proclamation laid down the principles which were to deal with the important question of the rights of concessionaires in the country.

The Question of Concessions.

The chief Mbandini had given concessions both in the nature of monopolies and of land, forestry and mineral rights which much more than exhausted the resources of

the country. Fortunately for the natives, the Government of the South African Republic considered it worth while to acquire several of these concessions with a view to securing the political control of the country, and thus among others they acquired monopolies of levying customs duties, of building railways and telegraphs and controlling all postal and survey services. They also acquired control over about a third of the land of the territory, and these rights became vested by conquest of the Republic in the British Government. But there remained a vast mass of monopolies and concessions. The former the Government decided to expropriate, and they were appropriated accordingly. Concessions it decided to recognize, provided that they had been confirmed by the Chief Court set up in 1890, but subject to the fixing of the boundaries by a commission and the making of surveys, and subject to the rule that the rights of the natives to the use of their lands should not be affected. The Proclamation, however, recognized that it might be desirable that portion of the lands covered by landgrazing forestry or mineral concessions should be relieved of all the burdens imposed on them by these concessions and handed over to the natives. The process of surveying the concessions and suggesting a separation of native and European rights was carried out in 1905, but the final settlement was only arrived at after the fullest consideration by the Governor and much discussion with the Swazi chiefs in 1907, when it was decided and enacted by Proclamation No. 28 of 1907 that every concessionaire must surrender one-third of his concession without compensation, and that reserves should be laid out for the Swazis to occupy with a due regard both to their present and their future needs. The lands available for this purpose included, beside the land thus resumed from the concessionaires, the lands which were Crown lands as having been acquired by the South African Republic and as having passed by conquest to the British Crown. The task of

PART III. partition and the settling of boundaries was commenced as soon as possible and was completed in 1910-11, and the land rights of natives and Europeans are now disposed of. Mineral concessions on the other hand were recognized without deduction, but subject to provisions to prevent undue disturbance of land and interference with the graves of the chiefs.

The Private Revenue Concession.

One matter of outstanding importance remained to be dealt with. The chief Mbandini had sold for £12,000 a year to a European, in 1889, the right of collecting the whole of his private revenues, and this concession was acquired by the South African Republic. They exercised the right from 1894 to 1899, during which period a profit of £9,000 accrued even after the payments to the chief were made. On the British occupation the sums due were collected somewhat imperfectly owing to the war, and up to February 16, 1905 only £22,000 was received. On that date a Proclamation No. 2 of 1905 cancelled the concession and made all the monies payable under it part of the revenue of Swaziland. But claims were made on the strength of the concession by the Queen Regent, who was recognized in that capacity owing to the extreme youth of the legitimate heir to the paramount chief, and her claims on behalf of the chief were finally disposed of by investing the sum of £20,000 for the chief, and paying the interest and a sum of £1,000 to the Queen Regent every year for his maintenance and her own. It would have been clearly unjustifiable to pay any further sums out of the native revenues, as the monies given to the rulers were habitually squandered without benefit to the people whom these rulers had by their lavish grants deprived of so much of their land.

The Re-organization of 1906-7.

On the grant of responsible government to the Transvaal in 1905 it was felt to be necessary to transfer the control of the country to the High Commissioner for South Africa, and this was done by Order in Council of December, 1906. The

whole administration was accordingly in February, 1907, set on a new basis by Proclamation No. 4 of 1907, of which further details will be given below. CH. VII. —♦—

The area of the territory is approximately 6,536 square miles, and geographically it is divided into three longitudinal regions. On the west is a mountainous region which approximates to an altitude of over 4,000 feet. The middle veld is about 2,000 feet lower, and the low veld bounded on the east by the Lebombo range attains an average altitude of not over 1,000 feet. The territory is well watered, the rivers running from west to east: the most northerly is the Komati, then come the Black and the White Umbuluzi, which unite and force their way into Portuguese territory to the north of the Lebombo range, and the numerous tributaries of the Usutu which flows south of the same range. The climate generally is mild and healthy, except in the low veld which is malarial during the rainy season. The average rainfall for the year ended June 30, 1912 at stations over 3,000 feet altitude was 40.40 inches, under 3,000 feet 30.05 inches, the means for the past five years being 45.40 and 36.85 inches respectively. The mean maximum screen temperature at Mbabane, the capital, during the period was 72.6, and the mean minimum 52.7 degrees. The highest temperature recorded at this station was 94 and the lowest 27. In the middle and low veld the temperatures are considerably higher. The one village of any size is Mbabane, at an altitude of 4,300 feet, Bremersdorp the old capital on the middle veld having been destroyed during the Boer War and never having recovered its former position. There are still smaller white settlements at Hlatikulu in the south, at the mining centres of Pigg's Peak and Forbes Reef, and at Stigi in the Lebombo Mountains.

A census of the population was taken on May 7, 1911, when the population was found to be 1,083 Europeans, including 460 women, 143 coloured persons, including

*Area and
Natural
Features.*

Climate.

Census.

PART III. 59 women, and 98,733 natives, including 54,635 women.
 —♦— The totals show an increase since the census of 1904 of 193 Europeans, 71 coloured persons, and 14,204 natives. The European birth-rate for the year 1911-12 was as high as 53.55 and the death-rate only 12.92, but in the small numbers the figures are somewhat misleading. There are no statistics of native births or deaths.

Government.

The territory is a British Protectorate, the British Crown having acquired by conquest the protectorate formerly exercised over the country by the South African Republic in virtue of the convention of December 10, 1894. The control of the British Crown has, however, no restrictions such as were imposed on the Republic by the treaty of 1894, as the restrictions could be enforced only by the action of the British Government and it cannot enforce them against itself. The constitution is contained in the Orders in Council of June 25, 1903 and of December 1, 1906, which confer on the High Commissioner for South Africa full executive and legislative authority subject to the Crown, which may disallow any legislative proclamation and which issues instructions as to the administrative action of the High Commissioner. The details of the administration are regulated by Proclamation No. 4 of 1907. The actual conduct of government is entrusted to a Resident Commissioner, as in the case of Basutoland and the Bechuanaland Protectorate. Subordinate to him are a Deputy Resident Commissioner, a post created by Proclamation No. 58 of 1910, Assistant Commissioners in the districts of which there are four, Hlatikulu, the Peak, formerly the Horo, Mbabane, and Ubombo, while there is a Deputy Assistant Commissioner stationed at Mamkaiana in the Mbabane district, which is too large to be effectively worked by one man alone.

Judiciary.

The judicial power was divided, up to 1912, among the Resident Commissioner and the Assistant Commissioners, the court of the former being a Court of Appeal from decisions

of the latter, while for specially important cases, both civil and criminal, affecting Europeans, there was a special court. This court¹, under a Proclamation No. 22 of 1912, holds sessions twice a year and oftener, if necessary. That Proclamation also deprived the Resident Commissioner of all ordinary jurisdiction, and gave him only a limited criminal and civil jurisdiction when the special court is not in session. From the special court, appeals lie to the Judicial Committee of the Privy Council in any case by leave of the court or of the Judicial Committee, and of right in every case where the value involved is at least £500, and from decisions in divorce and matrimonial proceedings. The Assistant Commissioners have jurisdiction similar to that of Resident Magistrates in the Transvaal in cases between Europeans, and in criminal cases when the accused is a European, and under Proclamation No. 3 of 1910, general jurisdiction in all other cases.

In native cases, in the Commissioners' Courts effect is given to native law and custom where they do not contravene the principles of justice or the special legislation of the territory. Otherwise the Roman-Dutch law is the law of the land, and the laws of the Transvaal up to 1904 *en bloc*, and others passed since have been adopted with necessary variations. Civil cases where both parties are natives are entrusted to the native chiefs, but subject to appeal under Proclamation No. 22 of 1912 to the Resident Commissioner. This principle is objected to by some of the Swazi chiefs, but it is in accordance with the rule invariably observed in South Africa where the native chiefs have jurisdiction, as in Basutoland, the Bechuanaland Protectorate, and as regards the jurisdiction of the native courts in the country of Lewanika, which is excepted from the

¹ Composed of a Barrister appointed by the High Commissioner, the Resident Commissioner, the Deputy Resident Commissioner, and the Assistant Commissioners. The quorum is three.

PART III. jurisdiction of the British South Africa Company in Northern Rhodesia, and in the Transvaal under Act No. 29 of 1907. Criminal jurisdiction is not conceded to the chiefs.

The Paramount Chief.

The paramount chief of the Swazis is Sobhuza, a boy aged about fifteen, grandson of Mbandini, and the regent is the queen Nabotsibeni, a woman of considerable cleverness and power of will: she is aided by a council of chiefs, including Nogcogco Dhlamini, the brother of Mbandini, and Malunge Dhlamini, the son of Mbandini. The young chief is being educated at the native school at Zombodi, and is said to show promise. In the eyes of the natives most importance attaches to the rain-making magic powers of the supreme chief, and in 1907 the Queen Regent was unpopular because of the failure of the rains.

Police.

Order is maintained by a police force, of which the authorized strength in 1912 was an Assistant Commissioner, three sub-inspectors, a superintendent, eight European non-commissioned officers, eleven European troopers, and nineteen native non-commissioned officers and 152 constables. The chief crimes are infractions of the law relating to payment of native tax, which are becoming less frequent as the hopelessness of final evasion is realized, violence and assaults at native kraals due to the unrestricted drinking of native beers, stock theft, which is a very serious crime, hundreds of sheep brought into the country for grazing purposes by Transvaal farmers being annually slaughtered for their meat, and witchcraft which is heavily punished by special legislation.

Revenue.

The revenue of the country in 1911-12 reached £57,306, of which, however, £7,896 represented revenue from the sale of Crown lands and leases, leaving an ordinary revenue of £49,410. In the year 1910-11 the corresponding figures were £58,722, £12,083, and £46,639. The bulk of the ordinary revenue (£25,839) was derived from the native tax: import dues gave £7,175, concession rents £3,754, and dog

tax £3,030. There were minor receipts from licences, CH. VII.
 fines, court fees, revenue stamps, transfer dues, posts and —+—
 telegraphs, products tax of 10 per cent. on gold, royalty
 on base metals, &c. The expenditure reached £62,191, but *Expendi-*
 the ordinary expenditure was only £45,774. Swaziland has *ture.*
 had to pay out in all over £190,000 for the expropriation
 of concessionaires and allied expenses, of which ultimately
 about £30,000 will be recoverable from the concession
 holders for work done by the Government in the process of
 partition of native and European rights. These concessions
 account for the public debt of the territory: this consists *Public*
 of the Swazi Nation Trust Fund of £20,000, bearing interest *Debt.*
 at 4 per cent., representing the amount paid to the Queen
 Regent on behalf of the paramount chief in addition to the
 annual allowance of £1,000, and a consolidated loan of
 £100,000, bearing interest at $3\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. and repayable by
 means of a sinking fund in twenty-five years from April 1,
 1910. The bulk of the ordinary expenditure is on establish-
 ments, £10,153 in 1911-12, and on police, £13,419 in
 that year, while interest and sinking fund on the loan
 absorbed £5,654. The extraordinary expenditure included
 £6,505 for the concessions and partition commission,
 £6,231 for land settlement, and £3,681 for the eradication
 of east coast fever. For 1913-14 the ordinary expenditure is
 set down as £49,945, of which £11,286 is on establishments,
 and £14,078 on police, while the extraordinary expenditure
 is fixed at £7,380, including £4,145 for public works and
 £2,285 for the eradication of fever.

By an agreement with the Union of South Africa, dated *Customs.*
 June 30, 1910, Swaziland has been treated since July 1, 1910
 as a unit of the Customs Union. Payments due to Swaziland
 are assessed on the proportion which the average of the
 collections for the three years ended March 31, 1910 bore
 to the average of the total customs collections of the Union.

Owing to the arrangement with the Union regarding *Trade.*

PART III. customs, no record is kept of the trade of the territory as a unit. The latest figures available are therefore those for the year 1909-10, when the imports were valued at £44,309 as against £47,310 in the preceding year, and £37,850 for the year ended March 31, 1908. Of the imports for 1909-10, £42,765 represented merchandise, £544 Government stores, and £1,000 specie; and of the merchandise, £13,149 was South African produce. The imports consist principally of maize, flour, groceries, wearing apparel, hardware, spirits, and tobacco. The exports for 1909-10 were valued at £90,348, as compared with £56,206 and £63,148 for the two preceding years. Raw gold accounted for £44,499, and tin ore for £41,768: nothing else worth over a few pounds was exported, except specie re-exported, £4,000, and hides and skins £54. In 1911-12, the gold exported and the tin exported represented probably the whole output, viz. £62,783 and £32,397 respectively: there is no sign of any substantial increase of export in any other commodities.

*Gold and
Tin.*

Agriculture.

The native crops consist of maize, millet, sweet potatoes, ground nuts, pumpkins, and ground beans, which, however, are produced so carelessly, without use of irrigation, that the amounts available are insufficient to meet native needs. With the settlement of the concession question, the Government has been able to place land in limited quantities at the disposal of European smallholders on farms of some 60 to 800 acres, and they grow with better success crops of millet, maize, tobacco, and have experimented with promising results on cotton growing. The Government horticulturist of the Transvaal has reported favourably on the possibility of growing citrus fruits and mangoes. A Farmers' Association has also been formed which has encouraged the growing of better crops, and the mealies produced have been commended by the Government botanist of the Union.

Stock.

The census of May 7, 1911 showed that there were 57,600 horned cattle in the country, 541 horses, 329 mules,

1,538 donkeys, 163,593 sheep and goats, and 8,994 pigs. About 100,000 merino sheep are annually brought into the high veld for winter grazing by farmers from the Transvaal, and some of these were included in the enumeration: during the summer months these sheep are not farmed in Swaziland. The great source of trouble in late years has been the presence of east coast fever, which made its appearance in 1902, and which has been fought hard ever since. The natives agreed in 1911 to a tax of 2s. a year on every adult native for a national fund to be used for purposes beneficial to the people, and especially to combat the disease; and European cattle-owners readily consented to submit to a tax of 2s. per annum for two years, and then 1s. for three years for each head of cattle owned by them. A scheme of operations against the disease was drawn up at the end of 1909, and has been carried into effect: it is based on the branding of all cattle, the segregation of infected herds, the slaughter of calves of immune parents born in infected areas, and the fencing off of the bush veld which is free of disease. On an outbreak of the disease occurring, the Government assume control, and the infected animals are either slaughtered, or if that is not necessary, dipped at intervals of three or five days. Compensation on a fixed scale is paid for animals destroyed or dying after the Government has taken control. A sum of £8,096 was expended on the work in 1911-13, and the disease is now confined to certain defined areas in which dipping tanks have been or are being constructed. Locusts have spared the country since 1909, but there is always danger of their reappearance from Portuguese territory.

Mining is in the main carried on under the concessions granted by the paramount chief Mbandini and recognized by the Administration. The Crown, however, owns a few mineral areas, and these may be thrown open to the public for prospecting and mining under the authority of the Mineral

PART III. Areas Proclamation, 1912. Gold is worked at several mines near the western border, of which the principal are the mine at Pigg's Peak, the Forbes Reef Mine twelve miles from Mbabane, and the Horo Mine at the northern extremity of the country. The output of gold has risen from £13,203 in 1907-8 to £57,530 in 1910-11 and £62,783 in 1911-12. Tin is found in payable quantities in the vicinity of Mbabane: the output has not, however, increased of late years, since it was £49,568 in 1907-8 as against £42,250 in 1910-11 and £32,397 in 1911-12. Native labour is available generally, but at some seasons of the year difficulty is experienced in obtaining a full complement.

Currency. The currency of Swaziland, like that of the rest of South Africa, is British, with the addition of the Transvaal coinages, which were issued by the Transvaal mint in virtue of the Transvaal Law No. 14 of 1891. There is a branch of the National Bank of South Africa at Mbabane. There is also under the Post Office a savings bank department, but the transactions are small. In 1912 there were eleven post offices and four telegraph offices, which are under the direction of the Union postal authorities.

Communications. The possibility of the development of Swaziland depends essentially on communication being established by railway with the rest of South Africa, and there is now prospect of this being accomplished. At present a passenger coach service runs twice a week between Breyton Station on the Johannesburg-Ermelo Railway and Mbabane, a distance of eighty-nine miles, and eventually it is probable that a railway may be carried from Breyton past Bremersdorp to Lorenzo Marques.

Education. Education is superintended by the Director of Education of Basutoland, who once a year inspects the schools and advises the Administration generally. The Administration maintains five elementary schools, two in the Hlatikulu district where the white population is thickest, at Ferreira's

Station and at Hluti, one at Bremersdorp, one at Driefontein, and one at Paradys. There is at Mbabane a school for European children, which receives aid, and so charges no fees: it gives secondary education as well as elementary training. The average number of pupils in attendance at these schools was put at 120 in 1911-12, but at 219 in the preceding year. The Government allow four shillings a week per child for children of European parents in poor circumstances, whose residence is three miles or more from a school. So far as is practicable education is imparted through the medium of the pupil's own language.

Native education is mainly in the hands of the missions, *Native Education.* and the amount of Government assistance is strictly limited, the grants in 1910-11 totalling £125 and in 1911-12 £175. But the Government have themselves a native school at Zombodi the head kraal, where the young paramount chief is being educated, and where in course of time it is hoped that all the sons of native chiefs will be sent. The average attendance is given at eighty in 1910-11, but at only forty-two in the succeeding year. Of the mission schools in 1908 there were sixteen, including two Wesleyan mission schools, one at Bremersdorp and one at Emakosine, five Anglican mission schools, one American, one Scandinavian Alliance, and one interdenominational, but the number of pupils taught was not known, and no record is even now available as the Government do not control the schools which they do not subsidize.

Religious influences are represented by a large number of *Religion.* missions, including the English Church, the South Africa General Mission, the Scandinavian Alliance Mission, the African Methodist Episcopal Mission, the Wesleyan Methodist Mission, the American International Holiness Union, and the Independent Methodist Mission. But it is doubtful whether Christianity has made very great progress among the natives, who have been somewhat injuriously affected by

PART III. the long years of semianarchy before the confirmation of British rule, and whose organization has been seriously disturbed by the fact that the partition of the country has inevitably broken up the tribes in a way unknown in Basutoland, which in some regards presents a close resemblance to Swaziland.

*Medical
Relief.*

Comparatively little is done in the way of medical relief for the natives. There is only one hospital, that at Mbabane, with a European and two native wards, in which about sixty-five patients are treated every year. There were, however, in 1911-12 over 1,500 out-patients. Lunatics are admitted by arrangement with the Union Government into the Pretoria Asylum.

*Future
Prospects.*

The future of Swaziland seems likely to be different from that of Basutoland. The latter country has now a distinct individuality as a definite reserve for natives, and the country is so fully occupied and held under communal control that European intrusion seems to be precluded. On the other hand Swaziland has sacrificed its possibility of becoming another native reserve. The concessions of Mbandini have resulted in so permeating the country with European settlers and European government that there is no ground why European settlement should not be encouraged, and in view of the need in the Union for land suitable for agricultural occupation, there seems to be little doubt that the obvious advantages offered by Swaziland in this respect will not be ignored. This may of course mean at no distant date the acceptance by the Union of the duty of governing the territory, and the provisions for the government of territories so handed over are defined in the schedule to the South Africa Act.

These provisions apply to any of the territories now under the direct administration of the High Commissioner if transferred to the control of the Union. In that event the legislative authority for the territory will be the Governor-General in

Council, and not the Parliament of the Union, but any proclamation made by the Governor-General in Council may be disallowed by resolutions of both houses of Parliament. The administration will be carried on by the Prime Minister of the Union, but to secure permanency of policy he will be advised by a Commission consisting of not less than three members with a Secretary, who shall be appointed by the Governor-General in Council, and hold office for ten years with the possibility of reappointment for further periods of five years. Their independence of Parliament is secured by the fact that they cannot be removed from office except on an address from both Houses of Parliament, or have their salaries reduced during office. The Prime Minister is bound to consult them on all questions of administration or legislation affecting the territory, except in cases of urgency when he must inform them of the action taken. In case of his disregarding their advice, they are entitled to record their reasons, and to have the record laid before the Governor-General in Council, whose decision shall be final. But unless the Governor-General in Council records his opinion that the publication of the record would be gravely detrimental to the public interest, the record must be laid before Parliament. The estimates of the territory must also be referred to the Commission, and finally approved by the Governor-General in Council.

The alienation of the native lands in Basutoland, and of the reserves in the Bechuanaland Protectorate and Swaziland is forbidden, nor may liquor be allowed to be supplied to the natives. No differential duties may be imposed, and the Union customs and excise legislation shall be applied to the territory. The territory shall receive as revenue a sum bearing to the total customs revenue of the Union the same proportion as the average of the revenue received by the territory for the three years preceding the coming into effect of the Act of Union bore to the total customs revenue of the

PART III. whole of the territories then included in the Union. Conversely the whole revenue of the territory must be expended upon it, except that a sum may be charged for defence purposes not exceeding the same proportion of the total defence expenditure of the Union.

The schedule also provides that there shall be free intercourse between any territory controlled by the Union under its provisions and the other parts of the Union, but subject to the pass laws. Any proclamation made by the Governor-General in Council may be disallowed by the King, and the terms of the schedule may only be altered by a reserved bill, which receives after reservation the assent of the Crown. The position of existing officers is also safeguarded in the event of transfer, and any appeal possible before transfer to the Crown in Council will lie to the Appellate Division of the Supreme Court of the Union.

CHAPTER VIII

THE ORANGE FREE STATE

THE boundaries of the Orange Free State were first defined CH. VIII.
in the Proclamation of February 3, 1848, declaring British —♦—
sovereignty over the territory, but that sovereignty was dis- *The Bound-*
owned by an Order in Council of January 30, 1854, and *aries.*
a convention of February 23 in that year recognized the
independence of the Free State. The boundary was defined
precisely by the treaty of Aliwal North of February 12, 1869,
as regards Basutoland which had been annexed to the Bri-
tish Empire in the preceding year. The boundaries were
reconsidered, however, and redefined in 1876 by an agree-
ment of July 13, between Lord Carnarvon and President
Brand, under which the Free State received a payment of
£90,000 for relinquishing any claim to the possession of the
diamond fields territory which it had claimed. The Basuto-
land boundary was defined in the Cape Act No. 12 of 1871,
making provision for the government of Basutoland by the
Cape, but that Act was repealed when disannexation took
place by Act No. 34 of 1883, and the present definition of
the boundary rests on a proclamation of October 19, 1891,
by the High Commissioner for South Africa. On the north
the boundary is the Transvaal; on the west and south, the
Cape Province; and on the east Natal and Basutoland as
defined by the Proclamation of 1891.

The Province stretches from the Orange River to the Vaal, *Area.*
and has a length of 360 miles and an average breadth of about
130 miles. Its area is about 50,389 square miles, less than half
that of the Transvaal, and about the size of England without

PART III. Wales. It lies between $26^{\circ} 30'$ and $30^{\circ} 40'$ south latitude and $24^{\circ} 20'$ and 30° east longitude.

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The Rivers.

Apart from the Vaal, its northern boundary, the Orange River is the only river of much importance in the Province; many of the tributaries which flow into it being almost waterless in the dry months. Taking its rise in the mountains of Basutoland, the Orange runs along the southern border of the Province, separating it from the Cape. Its main tributaries are the Caledon, which joins it near Bethulie, the Riet, and the Modder Rivers. It is not till beyond the borders of the Orange Free State that the Orange is joined by the Vaal River in Griqualand West.

Climate.

The climate of the Orange Free State is on the whole dry. Nevertheless it varies considerably in the different districts. The eastern portion is the best watered, and is comparatively moist, with a rainfall of 24 inches. The western portion is very dry; the rainfall being both slight, about 14 inches, and uncertain. Without irrigation agriculture in this portion of the Province is almost impossible, but the land is suited for sheep. The central portion represents a mean between the eastern and western districts, being less moist, with a fall of 18 inches, than the former, but not so dry as the latter district. The heat in the central and western divisions from December to February is very great. The climate is, on the whole, very healthy, the Bloemfontein district from its height (4,510 feet) above the sea and dry air being especially adapted to those suffering from weak chests. The rainfall is about 20 inches.

Bloemfontein is the chief town of the Province, but as yet it is not much more than a small country town, with a population in 1911 of some 26,925, of whom 14,720 were Europeans.

Description.

The greater part of the country consists of rolling plains covered with karroo bush in the south, and with grass in the northern portion; the north-eastern half of the Province

affording at present the best pasture land. Toward the south a great portion of the Orange Free State consists of stony kopjes and barren plains, and it is, for the most part, a vast grazing ground, but it also contains a tract of country which is especially adapted for the development of agriculture. This is known as 'the conquered territory,' land taken from the Basutos, and consists of the strip, in length about 130 miles and in breadth about 25 miles, which borders on the Caledon River, or which drains into it. The country lies between 4,500 feet and 5,500 feet above the sea, and has a rainfall of from 25 to 30 inches. The veld is covered with good grass, and agriculture is greatly on the increase. Wheat and Indian corn are the principal crops. Extreme fertility is given to the soil by the presence of phosphate of lime, and the district seems destined to become the granary of South Africa. It is in this portion of the Province that an organized attempt was made after the war to develop British colonization by the establishment of colonies. The work was carried on after responsible government by a Board under the Governor for five years from October 1, 1907, and over 1,500,000 acres were settled by some 650 families, of whom five-sixths were British. The Union Act No. 15 of 1912 provided facilities for the settlers obtaining Crown grants of land on quit-rent tenure, and practically all the settlers took advantage of the Act.

The districts of the Province are Vrede, Frankfort, Heilbron, Vredefort, Kroonstad, and Hoopstad, facing the Transvaal from east to west; Boshof, Jacobsdal, Fauresmith, Philippolis, and Rouxville, facing the Cape Province from north to south-east; and Wepener, Thaba 'Nchu, Ladybrand, Ficksburg, and Bethlehem, facing Basutoland from south-east to north-east; and Harrismith and part of Vrede facing Natal. The interior districts from south to north are Smithfield, Edenburg, Bloemfontein, Winburg, Senekal, and Lindley.

The Districts.

PART III.

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Agriculture.

Hitherto the main wealth of the country has consisted in its flocks and herds. Horse-breeding is also a profitable industry. Comparatively little has been done in the way of agriculture, except in the eastern division. In 1909 there were 74,000 morgen under wheat, 84,000 under oats, 345,000 under maize, 13,000 under orchards, and smaller areas under barley, potatoes, &c. Since 1908-9 an important trade in maize has been developed. As in the Transvaal, scarcity of water is the main impediment to successful agriculture, but with the extension of irrigation the natural fertility of the land will receive fair play, and market gardening especially should prove an important industry. The systematic planting of trees may further increase the rainfall. There are indications of coal, diamonds, gold, iron, saltpetre, and petroleum in several parts of the Province, but as yet the diamond mines at Jagersfontein and Koffyfontein, both in the district of Fauresmith, represent the chief mineral production of the country.

Population.

In 1890 the population was about 207,500, of whom 77,700 were Europeans. In 1904 it was 387,315, of whom 142,679 were white. The census of 1911 gave 528,174 persons, of whom 175,189 were white. The natives were overwhelmingly of the Bantu race, 325,824 being assigned to it; of these the most were Basuto, but the Bechuanas and Zulus were also strongly represented. Coloured persons numbered 16,112, and the policy of Asiatic exclusion has been so successful that there were only 106 Indians.

Government.

The administration is conducted by an Administrator, appointed by the Union Government with the aid of the Executive Committee of the Provincial Council. The Council consists of twenty-five members, elected for the same number of constituencies, and the franchise is confined to adult European males, the conditions affecting it being precisely the same as those in the case of the Transvaal which have been given above.

The law of the Province is Roman-Dutch law as modified by laws of the Orange Free State, ordinances of the Orange River Colony under Crown Colony administration, acts of the Colony after responsible government, and now by ordinances of the Provincial Council and acts of the Union Parliament. Justice is administered by the Provincial Division of the Supreme Court of the Union, which consists of a Judge President and two judges, and by Resident Magistrates and special Justices of the Peace; the Magistrates have civil and criminal jurisdiction, the Justices a limited criminal jurisdiction, and the Provincial Division controls the inferior courts. Bloemfontein is also the seat of the Appellate Division of the Supreme Court of the Union.

Municipal government is provided for by Ordinance No. 6 of 1904, amended by many other ordinances. The franchise is exercised by persons of full age resident in the municipality and occupying a house valued at not less than £200, and by owners, whether resident or not, of immovable property valued at not less than £100. But coloured persons are excluded unless they are the offspring of a lawful marriage between a coloured mother and a white father, or vice versa, and have obtained the right to the ownership or occupation of immovable property. The councillors hold office for two years, half retiring annually, and elect the Mayor. The powers of the municipalities are fairly comprehensive, and they can levy rates and borrow money; but if the loan exceeds £2,000, the assent of the majority of registered owners of property is required, and the approval of the Administrator.

For the year 1902-3 the revenue of the Orange River Colony was £956,535, and its expenditure £839,922. In the eleven months of 1909-10 the figures were £952,890 and £957,741. The public debt on May 30, 1910 was £8,932,708. In 1898, the last normal year before the war, the imports were to the value of £1,190,933, and the

CH. VIII.

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*Law and
Justice.**Municipal
Institu-
tions.**Revenue
and Ex-
penditure.*

PART III. exports were to the value of £1,923,425. Wool, mohair, skins, and hides were the main articles of export. In addition to these general exports, diamonds to the value of £514,099 were also exported. In 1909 the imports were £3,662,696, and the exports £4,777,126; the latter included diamonds, £1,386,908; wool, £989,367; live stock, £846,470; maize, £559,587; skins, £115,702; butter and cheese, £85,662; eggs, £52,035; Kaffir corn, £36,436; and oats, £17,278.

Education. In the Orange Free State a department of public education was organized as early as 1874, when ten Government schools were established. Since that date the State has always been anxious to maintain its position in educational matters. By 1890 the number of public schools had grown to fifty-five, while there were sixteen aided private schools: in 1898, the last year before the war for which statistics are available, the public schools numbered 199, and the aided private schools forty-two. The progress was temporarily interrupted by the war, but in the refugee camps the children were, as far as possible, afforded opportunities for being taught, and when the war was over, the rebuilding of schools and the extension of educational facilities proceeded very rapidly. In June, 1903, there were seventy-seven Government schools with 9,031 pupils, a larger number than the highest figure (8,157) recorded before the war, but in June, 1905, the numbers were 258 and 15,577, while by December, 1911 there were 555 Government and Government-aided schools, with a total number of pupils of 20,028, which had increased by 1912 to 21,600. Provision is made for small isolated farm schools by a grant of £4 a year for every child in attendance.

The principle was adopted under Crown Colony administration that there should be no fees for elementary education, in place thereof a tax of ten shillings a head being levied on every adult white male; fees were charged only in the three high schools, one for boys, one for girls, and one

mixed. English and Dutch were accorded equal treatment as languages, but English was adopted as the medium of instruction, except in the teaching of Dutch. This policy was modified by the Education Act passed in 1908 under the responsible Government régime. That Act laid down the principle that up to and including Standard IV, the medium of instruction should be the language best understood by the child, while the other language must be used in a gradually increasing degree, until in Standard IV both should be employed in an approximately equal degree. Beyond that standard, at least three of the principal school subjects were to be taught through English and three through Dutch, and the language which was not the medium of instruction in any subject was to be used as a subsidiary medium as far as practicable. English and Dutch as languages were to be taught through the language which was the subject of instruction. The education tax was abolished and fees exacted from all those whose parents were able to pay. The plan embodied in the Act was held by General Hertzog to be the only sound plan of obtaining bilingual training for pupils, but its introduction was the source of much friction, culminating in certain resignations of Government officers, and after Union the question was solved for the whole Union on the lines noted above, which were adopted by the other provinces as a concession in return for their adoption by the Free State.

The Act of 1908 also introduced the principle of local control of education, in place of the local education committees established in the towns in 1903 with purely advisory functions. With the exception of certain high schools, every primary and secondary public school was placed under the supervision of a committee consisting of five or seven members, according to the size and importance of the school, elected by the parents of the children attending the school. In each district there is set up a District Board,

PART III. consisting of nine members, of whom five are elected by the several committees within the district, and the rest appointed formerly by the minister in charge of education, and now by the Administrator in Council. Religious instruction can only be given by members of the school staff, and all dogmatic teaching is prohibited during school hours, except in country schools when parents request that such instruction shall be given.

Higher Education. Higher education is provided by Grey University College, Bloemfontein, which prepares students for degrees of the University of the Cape in arts, law, survey, engineering, and pharmacy. The training of teachers is provided by the Normal School at Bloemfontein, which gives bursaries for suitable candidates, and technical subjects are taught in the Polytechnic College at Bloemfontein. At Bloemfontein also there is an industrial school for the children of poor parents and orphans: the pupils are maintained and taught at Government expense, and are apprenticed to various trades and industries in the town.

Courses of instruction in agriculture are given at the Grey College, while domestic economy is taught at the Eunice High School, and cookery, dressmaking, art needlework, and millinery are taught at Bloemfontein and at other centres in the Province. There are also in various places in the Province, schools for teaching spinning and weaving.

Native Education. Native education is provided for by means of grants to the various religious denominations which make provision for educating natives: the grants are proportional to the work done, and only some ten thousand children are thus educated.

Religion. Of the population in 1911, 350,061 were Christian, and of these 175,711 belonged to the Dutch Church. The Wesleyan Methodists came second with 88,857, and the Anglican communities had 42,401. The only other denominations of importance were Independents, Lutherans, and Presbyterians, with over 7,000 each, and the Church of Rome with 5,576. There were 2,808 Jews, while 173,336 were stated to have no religion.

CHAPTER IX

BASUTOLAND

BASUTOLAND became British territory, and the Basutos British subjects, on March 12, 1868, under a Proclamation issued on that day by Sir Philip Wodehouse, who was then Governor of the Cape and High Commissioner. Moshesh, the great Basuto leader, to whose courage and statesmanship the Basutos owed their very existence as a people, was still alive at the time, but constant war with the Boers of the Orange Free State had brought him and his followers to the last stage of distress. Two thousand Basuto warriors had been killed, cattle had been carried off, native homes had been broken up and crops destroyed. The tribe was reduced to the position of starving refugees, and nothing could save them but the protection of the British Government, which they had repeatedly implored. That protection was at length given, in spite of the strong protests of the Orange Free State; by the Convention of Aliwal North, signed on February 12, 1869, a new boundary was defined between the Free State and the Basutos' country; and, narrowed in limits, Basutoland was acknowledged by the Boers to be a part of the Queen's dominions.

At the time when Sir Philip Wodehouse put forth his Proclamation, it was contemplated to incorporate the Basuto territory with the colony of Natal, but to such a scheme Moshesh objected strongly, preferring annexation to the Cape Colony, and most of all desiring that his country should be kept as a native reserve under the direct control of the High Commissioner. For some two years this third

CH. IX.

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The Annexation of Basutoland.

The Transfer to the Cape.

PART III. course was adopted, and the Basutos were left very much to themselves under the supervision of an agent of the High Commissioner, who was mainly concerned in keeping peace on the border. The Imperial Government, however, desired that a more permanent arrangement should be made, and that Basutoland should be transferred either to the Cape Colony or to Natal. The question was referred to the Cape Parliament, and eventually that Parliament passed the Basutoland Annexation Act of 1871, by which the territory, whose boundaries were defined in the Act, was declared to be annexed to the Colony of the Cape of Good Hope. At the same time it was provided that the general law of the Cape Colony should not extend to Basutoland, but that the power of making laws for the territory, including the power to extend to it the provisions of Cape Acts, should be vested in the Governor of the Cape.

*The
Troubles
from 1879.*

For some years after the annexation Basutoland prospered, in charge of Colonel Griffith as the governor's agent, though the old chief Moshesh had passed away, leaving none to succeed him of equal character and influence. In 1879 troubles began.¹ Moirosi, a chieftain in the south-eastern corner of the land, defied the officers of the law who had arrested his son, and broke out into open rebellion. Some difficult campaigning ensued, before his mountain stronghold was taken, and the chief killed, at the end of the year; and, when the fighting was over, a proposal by the colonial Government to break up the disturbed district and introduce European settlers gave offence and caused alarm to the other Basuto clans. This discontent was increased in 1880 by a Proclamation applying to Basutoland the Cape Peace Preservation Act of 1878, which involved the disarmament of the natives; and an attempt to enforce the Act brought on a general revolt, which spread into the other native ter-

¹ See Parl. Papers, Cd. 2964, 3112, 3493, 3708, 3717, 3855, 4263, 4589.

ritories on the eastern frontier of the Cape Colony. In the war which followed the colonial forces met with little success; and in 1881 the High Commissioner, Sir Hercules Robinson, arbitrated between the Cape Government and the Basutos, fining the latter 5,000 head of cattle, and ordering compensation to be paid by the tribe in general to those members of it who had not taken part in the uprising and had suffered in consequence. The award was accepted, but its terms were not fully carried out, by the Basuto people; the Cape Government made concessions, disarmament was abandoned, and a constitution was offered to the tribe. Still the Basutos were not reconciled to the colony and its government, and on their side the colonial ministers were tiring of an expensive and thankless charge. Accordingly, *The Re-transfer to the Imperial Government.* as a choice of evils, the Imperial Government consented provisionally to take over charge of the country, provided that the Basutos gave evidence of their desire to remain subjects of the British Crown, that the Orange Free State undertook to co-operate in maintaining the peace of the frontier, and that the Cape Colony agreed to contribute to the cost of administration a sum representing the value of the customs duties on goods imported for use in Basutoland. These conditions were fulfilled by all the parties concerned. A national gathering of the Basutos, held in November, 1883, assented to the change; the Cape Parliament passed an Act for the disannexation of Basutoland from the Cape Colony, undertaking, by the terms of the Act, to pay over a sum not exceeding £20,000 per annum to the Imperial Government¹; and from March 13, 1884, Basutoland became, as it still remains, a British Colony under the direct

¹ This arrangement has now lapsed, and Basutoland, which, in 1891, joined the Customs Union and gave up its share of customs receipts against the Cape contribution, has now become self-supporting, receiving its share of the customs dues. It also joined the Customs Union of 1903 and the modification of 1906; its present relations are regulated by an arrangement, for which see above, p. 55.

PART III. control of the Crown. In 1886, Masupha, the last recalcitrant native chief, accepted the settlement.

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*The
Govern-
ment.*

In virtue of an Order in Council of February 2, 1884, all legislative and executive authority over Basutoland is exercised by the High Commissioner in the name of the King.¹ All laws of the territory are made by Proclamation of the High Commissioner, and all appointments, including those of Resident Commissioner, Assistant Commissioners, and other officers, are made by him in the name and on behalf of His Majesty. Under the High Commissioner there is a Resident Commissioner in the territory, whose head-quarters are at Maseru; there are Assistant Commissioners in the seven districts, a Government secretary, a financial secretary, medical officers, and officers of police. The country, however, is governed, as far as possible, through such native organization as exists, being divided between different clans or groups of the tribe under their different chieftains, first Lerothodi, grandson of Moshesh, then Letsie who died in 1913, being recognized as paramount chief over the whole. A Pitso, or national assembly, is under Proclamation No. 7 of 1910, now held once a year to discuss and explain matters of common interest. It consists of ninety-nine native members and the Paramount Chief; ninety-four are nominated by the chiefs and headmen, and five appointed by the Government. It has only a consultative function, but as it is fairly representative of the opinion of the chiefs and people, its resolutions have weight both in guiding legislation and in laying down rules suitable for observance by native chiefs in the exercise of their powers, both administrative and judicial.

Law.

The law of Basutoland, as enacted by the Proclamations of the High Commissioner, is, as nearly as the circumstances

¹ The power of the Crown is based on the fact that Basutoland is a ceded Colony. The Crown can legislate by Order in Council, and has delegated legislative and executive authority to the High Commissioner.

of the country permit, the law in force in the Cape Colony; but native law is administered by the native chiefs in both criminal and civil cases within certain defined limits. No suit to which a European is a party can be adjudicated upon by a native chief, except by consent of all parties concerned. Outside the limits of native jurisdiction, judicial and magisterial authority is vested in the Resident Commissioner, the Assistant Commissioners, and the officers of police. These officers may only deal with minor offences, their powers of punishment being limited to fines not exceeding £5 or imprisonment for three months. From their decisions appeals lie to the Assistant Commissioners under Proclamation No. 1 of 1912. An appeal in purely native cases lies to a court composed of the chief who heard the case and of an Assistant Commissioner, and the ultimate court of appeal in all cases¹ is the Resident Commissioner.

Stringent regulations have been enacted for safeguarding Basutoland as a native reserve. Natives domiciled elsewhere in South Africa are not allowed to enter the country without passes, and residents in Basutoland who wish to leave the country must also provide themselves with passes. No person is allowed to trade in Basutoland without a licence, and the introduction of spirituous liquors is strictly prohibited, though difficulty in enforcing this prohibition is caused by the ineffectiveness of the measures taken in the Cape and Orange Free State.

Basutoland lies between $28^{\circ} 45'$ and $30^{\circ} 40'$ south latitude, and between $26^{\circ} 50'$ and $29^{\circ} 30'$ east longitude. In shape it is between a quadrilateral and an oval, its line of length being due north-east and south-west. Its extreme length is about

¹ Except in cases when a European has agreed to accept the jurisdiction of a native chief. In such a case he is debarred from any right of appeal. Since the discussion at the Pitso of 1908 the Assistant Commissioners are instructed, if cases come to them on appeal, to refer to the Paramount Chief cases which suitably can be disposed of by him, e.g. cases regarding land and chieftainship; see Parl. Paper, Cd. 4196, p. 30; Proclamation No. 2 B of 1884, Regns. 8-11.

PART III. 160 miles, and its extreme breadth under 100. Its area is given at 11,716 square miles, being about one-third the size of Natal, nearly as large as Belgium, and two-thirds of the size of Switzerland, a land of high mountains like itself. It is a purely inland territory, lying between the Orange Free State on the west and north, Natal on the north and east, and the Cape Province on the east and south. The Caledon River bounds it on the north, and from the sources of the Caledon it is encircled east and south by the Drakensberg Mountains. It is in the very heart of the highest mountains of South Africa. Where it borders on Natal are the Mont aux Sources, the Cathkin Peak or Champagne Castle, and the Giant's Castle, all rising to over or to nearly 10,000 feet.¹ Turning round the easternmost corner of Basutoland, the main range of the Drakensberg runs due south-west; and within Basutoland, parallel to this main range, run two subsidiary ranges, known as the Maluti Mountains. These mountains with their outskirts occupy a large proportion of the total area of the territory, nearly 6,000 miles being practically uninhabitable.

*The
Rivers.*

The chief rivers run south-west, parallel to the mountain ranges. The border river on the northern side is the Caledon, divided near its source into the Great and Little Caledon. Between the two lines of the Maluti Mountains runs the main feeder of the Kornet Spruit River, which river joins the Orange River on the south-western boundary of Basutoland. Between the more southerly range of the Maluti Mountains and the main range of the Drakensberg flow the headwaters of the Orange River, for both the Orange River and the Caledon rise among the high mountains which divide Basutoland from Natal. Into the Caledon, the Kornet Spruit, and the Orange River flow smaller streams from either side, their courses being for the most part at

¹ The exact heights are—Mont aux Sources, 11,170 feet; Cathkin Peak or Champagne Castle, 10,357 feet; Giant's Castle, 9,657 feet.

right angles to the main mountain ranges and the main river channels. CH. IX.

The greatest extent of comparatively open country is on the northern and western side of the territory, between the Caledon River and the Maluti Mountains; the wildest and most completely mountainous districts are in the north-east and east, in the angle of the Drakensberg. The country, as a whole, is a plateau about 6,000 feet high, very rugged, very broken, encircled and intersected by high mountain ranges between which are upland valleys, fertile, well watered, and bare of wood and scrub.

For administrative purposes the territory has been divided into seven districts, each under an Assistant Commissioner. The residencies of three of these districts are on the north-western side of Basutoland. Of these, Leribe is the northernmost district, next to which is Berea, and next to Berea Maseru. The other districts are Mafeteng in the west, Kornet Spruit or Mohale's Hoek in the south-west, Quthing in the south, and Qacha's Nek in the extreme east. The chief village and centre of administration is Maseru by the Caledon River, near to the Berea plateau well known in Basutoland history, and to Thaba Bosigo, once the stronghold of Moshesh, and over against Ladybrand, in the Orange Free State. The second village in size and importance is Mafeteng.

Lying so high above the sea, Basutoland has a fine bracing climate. The winter, from May to August, is dry, with frosts at night. The rain falls principally in the summer time. In the year 1900-1 the average rainfall of the territory was between 29 and 30 inches, but in some years the fall exceeds 40 inches. In the same year the maximum temperature registered 82.5 and the minimum 35.3. In 1906-7 the rainfall was 41.49 inches, the maximum temperature 93°, and the minimum 11°. In 1909-10 the figures were 33.28 inches, 72.7 and 41.6 degrees. The mean annual temperature is about 60°, but at times there is a very wide

*Open
Country
and
Mountain
Districts.*

*Adminis-
trative
Divisions.*

Climate.

PART III. range of temperature, as much as 50° in the twenty-four hours.

Products. In spite of its mountains, Basutoland is a land of corn and a land of cattle and horses. The soil is good, the grass is rich, and the territory is one of the chief grain-producing areas in South Africa. The Basuto horsemen, in the days of Moshesh, played a great part in the annals of South African warfare, and, unlike other natives of South Africa in this respect, the Basutos are at the same time agriculturists to a much greater extent than most of the Kaffir tribes. Coal has been found in the country, together with traces of iron and copper, and the coal is worked to a small extent for local purposes; but Basutoland has hitherto been fortunate, as far as its native inhabitants are concerned, in not having attracted European speculators on the ground of possessing great mineral wealth, and the policy of preserving it as a native reserve discourages prospecting.

Revenue. The revenue of the territory has largely increased since it was placed under the control of the Crown. In 1911-12 the total receipts amounted to £138,864. £92,069 of this total was contributed by the tax of £1 on each adult native, with an extra £1 for each additional wife, but not exceeding £3; and the other principal item is £32,169, earned by customs dues under the South African Customs Union. Among minor items of revenue are interest, licences and post office receipts, though the posts and telegraphs do little more than pay their way. In 1910-11 the revenue amounted to £145,500.

In 1911-12 the total expenditure was £111,968. On this side the heaviest permanent items are the civil establishments and the police; and large sums are laid out year by year on public works and roads, on agriculture, and on education. There are balances from past years, and the country has no Public Debt. Under the Order in Council of 1911 the currency is British sterling, and Transvaal coinages under

the Law No. 14 of 1891. Much trade, however, is still conducted by barter. There is a branch of the Standard Bank at Maseru, and post office savings banks are found at most of the Government stations. CH. IX.
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The trade of Basutoland is almost entirely with the Orange Free State and the Cape Province, the heights of the Drakensberg being a barrier to easy communication with Natal. Railway communication was provided in 1905 by the construction of a branch line to Maseru from Marseilles on the Bloemfontein-Modderpoort line. Telegraph lines have been carried into Basutoland, both Maseru and Mafeteng have now telegraphic communication with Capetown, and there are stations at Hloti Heights, Tiyoteyaneng, Morija, Mohale's Hoek, and Quthing. The imports are mainly goods, woollen and cotton, haberdashery, saddlery, tinware, agricultural implements, &c., from the United Kingdom, supplied through the ports of the Cape Province. In the list of exports for 1909, the latest year for which figures are available owing to the new arrangements with the South African Customs, wool (£139,022) stood first, maize (£75,201) second, and wheat (£48,979) only fourth, with Angora hair (£49,721) third; and among minor articles of export were Kaffir corn, cattle, and horses. In 1911-12 there was a comparative failure of crops.

At the census of 1891 the population of Basutoland numbered 218,902, of whom 218,144 were aboriginal natives, and 578 Europeans. The most populous districts were those of Leribe, Maseru, and Mafeteng. The native population has since increased rapidly, by immigration as well as by natural increase, and in 1911 the total population was 403,111 natives and 1,396 whites. There were 184,102 males, 220,405 females; but the inequality of the sexes is only apparent, as 21,658 males were absent, and only 2,972 females. There is now a danger of over-population, as the habitable and cultivable area is limited. Land which was *Population.*

PART III. formerly reserved for grazing is being ploughed up, and the
—♦♦— live stock which, like the population, has largely increased in numbers, is in danger of deteriorating from want of sufficient pasturage. The same pressure of population upon the land tends to keep alive, and sometimes to embitter, the intertribal disputes which are the bane of Basutoland. Questions of chieftainship and inheritance, and of demarcation of land between different clans and families, absorb much of the attention of the Resident Commissioner and his officers, and the more the land is taken up the more such disputes are likely to recur. For, progressive and industrious as the Basutos are—beyond any other natives in South Africa—they are conservative and tenacious as regards their country, their land claims, and their tribal customs, suspicious of interference, and quarrelsome towards one another. They are not an easy people to influence and control; they make money in and out of their own land; they accumulate wealth and property, and know its value; they are essentially native owners, and jealously guard their own. To keep the peace, to prohibit drunkenness, to facilitate trade by improving and multiplying roads and other means of communication, to promote industrial education, for which a demand has arisen among the natives themselves, to improve the breed of the livestock, and to induce better methods of agriculture, these are at the present time the main objects of the Administration.¹

Missionary Influence. Missionary influence has for many years been strong in Basutoland, indeed missionaries played no small part, as friends and advisers of Moshesh, in consolidating his power and organizing his people. The chief mission agency has been the Paris Evangelical Mission Society, but good work has also been done by the Church of England and Roman

¹ It is a sign of the progress which is being made that agricultural shows have been held with success at the magisterial stations in Basutoland.

Catholic missionaries. Morija, in the west of Basutoland between Maseru and Mafeteng, is the head station of the French Protestants. Out of 251 schools in the territory only four are undenominational schools belonging to the Government; all the others are connected with the missionary societies, and are in receipt of grants in aid, the great majority of them having been established by the French mission. The number of pupils on the roll of the schools worked by that mission was in December, 1911, 5,650 boys and 8,548 girls, while the Church of England schools had 814 boys and 1,263 girls; the Roman Catholic schools 207 boys and 928 girls. There was a total increase over the preceding year of no less than 2,013 pupils, which was the more satisfactory since it was accounted for by the growth in the numbers in the small schools in heathen districts. The increase was much larger in the case of girls than of boys, showing that parents were losing in some measure their fear that school influence would emancipate their daughters from parental control with regard to marriage. There is a central board of advice, established in 1909, on which the three missionary bodies are represented and which assists in the improvement of native education, while the schools are subjected to the inspection of a Government Inspector. An important industrial school has been established by the Government at Maseru, where instruction is given in carpentering, mason work, and other industrial matters. The boys become rapidly proficient in their work, and the school has shown itself to be of great value.

The principles of the education of native children in Basutoland were carefully considered in a report of 1905-6 by Mr. E. B. Sargent¹, and the present syllabus of studies followed in the schools of the territory is in a large measure based upon his recommendations. The expenditure of the administration on education is considerable: in 1908-9 it

¹ Parl. Paper, Cd. 4119; see also Parl. Paper, Cd. 2378, pp. 125-42.

PART III. amounted to £10,631; in 1909-10 to £12,241; in 1910-11 to £12,385, and in 1911-12 to £9,804.

Improvement of Agriculture.

Another subject to which the Government has of late years devoted considerable expenditure is the improvement of agriculture. A Principal Veterinary Surgeon is in control of the work of improving the stock of the country, and much has been done by distributing well-bred rams and he-goats to stockowners throughout the territory, and by the introduction of carefully selected stallions. The results as regards the improvement of the quality of the wool and mohair exported are already evident, and some improvement in the horses of the country has been noted. It has not yet been possible to do much in the way of improving the native cattle, but great efforts are being made by the Administration to prevent the entry of east coast fever. For this purpose in 1912 no less than 231 special police were employed guarding the border in the Quthing and Qacha's Nek district. The disease exists both in Natal and in the Cape, and while the former is comparatively inaccessible from Basutoland, there is free communication with the latter, and great efforts are being made to prevent the introduction of the infection. The campaign against scab has been fairly effective; the Government has assisted by providing dipping tanks, of which in 1911-12 there were nineteen in use, over 86,500 sheep being dipped in the course of the year. The owners in the mountain areas have still insufficient appreciation of the necessity of making use of the facilities thus placed at their disposal by the Government.

Hospitals.

In addition to provision for the health of stock, the Government is solicitous for the health of the people. Hospitals are provided at Maseru, Leribe, Mafeteng, Mohale's Hoek, and Quthing, and in addition to medical officers in the district, there is a Principal Medical Officer with headquarters at Maseru. There are also dispensaries in other places, and the total number of patients treated at the

Government hospitals and dispensaries in 1911-12 reached 1,674 in-patients and 362,864 out-patients. By far the most serious disease is leprosy, which affects .91 per 1,000 of the people, and in May, 1911, the Basutoland National Council discussed in detail the whole question, with the result that they recommended by a large majority that a site should be selected in the neighbourhood of Maseru sufficiently large to contain all the lepers in the territory, and that authority should be obtained for the necessary expenditure to build a hospital. Steps are now being taken to carry this resolution into effect, accommodation being provided for some seven hundred lepers. Small-pox is also troublesome, an outbreak of considerable dimensions occurring in the Mafeteng and Mohale's Hoek districts in January and February, 1912: the spread of the disease was attributed to the neglect of vaccination among the natives, but the objection to vaccination was effectively removed by placing in quarantine all villages inhabited by persons who refused vaccination, as well as those villages which actually contained cases of small-pox.

Public works have, of late, thanks to the large revenue, been undertaken in increasing extent. As there are no navigable waterways, the rivers being too low in summer and flooded in winter, special attention has been directed to the improvement of the roads, on which £20,000 was expended in 1911-12, and to the provision of bridges. Bridges have been constructed over the Hlotse River, the Khomokoana River, the Caledon River at Ficksburg, and the Little Caledon River near Maseru, while a road and railway bridge crosses the Caledon River at that town. Near Tiyoteyaneng there is a bridge over the Phutiatsana River, and near Mohale's Hoek over the Mekhaleng River, while there are smaller bridges over the Tlametlu River and over the Tsoaeng River. In 1911-12, new head-quarters offices were provided at Maseru, and barracks for the police force are being constructed.

CH. IX.

Leprosy.

Small-pox.

Public Works.

PART III. If growth of population, and increase of pastoral and agricultural wealth, are a sure index to the progress being made by a native community, then Basutoland has thriven in a very marked degree under the control of the British Government. The success which has been attained is the result of tact and good management on the part of the officers in charge, who have won the confidence of the natives, and governed them through their recognized chiefs as arbitrators and advisers rather than as white men lording it over black. Basutoland is a country with turbulent elements, where in a limited space native difficulties are constantly arising, not easy to adjust; but, owing to the influence which a very few British officers have exercised over the mountaineers of South Africa, the territory affords pleasing evidence of the extent to which native races, when wisely handled, grow in numbers and in substance under European supervision.¹

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*Progress
of the
Colony.*

¹ For the progress of Basutoland the best authority is the series of Annual Reports. The High Commissioner visited the Colony in 1906; see Parl. Paper, Cd. 3094, pp. 1-9. The working of the National Council is described in Cd. 4106; its constitution is given in Cd. 5582, pp. 80 sq. There is an elaborate history of the people by Sir G. Lagden, *The Basutos*, London, 1909.

CHAPTER X

THE BECHUANALAND PROTECTORATE

NORTH of the Cape Province, in which British Bechuana-land is now included, the British dominion stretches up to and beyond the Zambesi. South of the Zambesi British territory has for its western boundary the German Protectorate. On the north it is bounded partly by the German Protectorate and the Zambesi. On the east, between the Zambesi and the Limpopo, it is conterminous with the Portuguese Possessions in East Africa; while the Limpopo is the boundary between Southern Rhodesia and the Transvaal.

CH. X.
—♦—
*The
Bechuana-
land Pro-
tectorate
and
Rhodesia.*

The total area between these limits is estimated to be *Area.* about 423,000 square miles. Of this total, some 275,000 square miles are comprised in the western section, the Bechuanaland Protectorate, while the remainder, amounting to about 148,575 square miles, represents the north-eastern portion of the territory, the plateau of Matabeleland and Mashonaland, now known as Southern Rhodesia. Southern Rhodesia forms the most important of the two divisions into which the British South Africa Company have divided their territories, the other being Northern Rhodesia, including the former divisions of North-Eastern Rhodesia and Barotseland—North-Western Rhodesia; both of which lie beyond the Zambesi. The three together have been given by the Company the common name of Rhodesia.

The origin of the Bechuanaland Protectorate is to be found in the year 1885, when Sir Charles Warren, who had been sent to intervene in the hostilities between the Boers and the Bechuana-*History of
Bechuana-
land.* in Southern Bechuanaland, visited the principal chiefs in Northern Bechuanaland, including Khama,

PART III. Gaseitsiwe, and Sebele, and as a result all the territory north of the Cape, which did not then include British Bechuanaland, east of 20 east longitude and south of 22 south latitude and west of the South African Republic, was declared to be under British influence.¹ In September, 1885, the High Commissioner by proclamation defined the limits of the territory of British Bechuanaland which was formally annexed to the Crown, while the northern territory remained under a vague Protectorate. The charter of the British South Africa Company, granted in 1889, referred to the sphere of action of the Company as lying to the north of British Bechuanaland, west and north of the South African Republic and east of the Portuguese Possessions, and thus included what is now the Bechuanaland Protectorate. On May 9, 1891, however, an Order in Council was issued which authorized the High Commissioner to administer the territory lying to the north of British Bechuanaland, and bounded by that colony, by the German Protectorate, the rivers Chobe and Zambesi, the Portuguese Possessions and the South African Republic. But the actual administration of that portion of this area included in what is now known as Southern Rhodesia was entrusted to the British South Africa Company by Orders in Council of May 9 and July 30, 1891, and July 18, 1894, though the powers given to the High Commissioner by the Order of 1891 still exist and are to some degree exercised in Southern Rhodesia. In June, 1891, in accordance with the powers conferred by this Order, the Administrator of British Bechuanaland was given charge of the Protectorate as Resident Commissioner. Subsequently the territory known as the Tati Concessions was definitely made part of the Protectorate and subjected to the control of the High Commissioner.

*The
Formation
of the Pro-
tectorate.*

In 1895 the Imperial Government decided, on the request of the Cape Government, to hand over the control of the Colony of British Bechuanaland to the Cape, and it was then proposed

¹ See Parl. Papers, C. 4224, 4227.

that the British South Africa Company should receive control of the Protectorate. The chiefs Khama, Bathoen, and Sebele made a famous mission¹ to England to object to being handed over to the Company's administration, and in the result Mr. Chamberlain decided that their tribes should remain under the control of the High Commissioner, the boundaries of their territories being precisely defined, but that the rest of the Protectorate should be placed under the Company. In pursuance of this scheme the Company's police were moved into the Protectorate to Pitsani Potlogo, from which place on December 29 Dr. Jameson started on his incursion into the South African Republic, which ended on January 2, 1896, with the capture of the remnants of the party by the Boers.² The Secretary of State thereupon determined that the Company could not be entrusted with the administration of the country, and since the annexation of British Bechuanaland to the Cape the Protectorate has been governed as a Protectorate directly under the control of the Crown.

The Protectorate is bounded on the south by the Cape Province, on the east by the Transvaal, on the north-east by Southern Rhodesia, and on the north and west by German territory. The German boundary was settled by Article II of the agreement between Great Britain and Germany, respecting Africa and Heligoland, signed on July 1, 1890. That agreement fixed the southern boundary of the German Protectorate in South-West Africa as following the north bank of the Orange River to the point of its intersection with the 20th degree of east longitude. The eastern boundary is placed along the 20th degree of east longitude until the point of its intersection with the 22nd parallel of south latitude, along which parallel it runs until its intersection with the 21st degree of east longitude. It follows that degree northwards to its point of intersection with the 18th parallel; then

¹ See Parl. Paper, C. 7962.² See Parl. Paper, C. 8380.

PART III. it runs eastwards along that parallel until it reaches the river Chobe, after which it follows the thalweg of the Chobe until its junction with the Zambesi. It was expressly provided in the arrangement that Germany should have free access to the Zambesi by a strip of land which should at no point be less than twenty English miles in width, and this decision is the cause of the curious intrusion of German territory in between the Bechuanaland Protectorate and Rhodesia. A partial delimitation of the boundary so laid down was carried out in 1898-1903, but the boundary on the Chobe and Zambesi is still undetermined.

The Territory.

The northernmost town of the Cape Province is Mafeking on the Molopo River, about seventeen miles south of the border. A straight line drawn due north from Mafeking will pass through the Victoria Falls on the Zambesi. Mafeking is very little to the north of 26° south latitude, and the Victoria Falls are just north of 18° . The Falls therefore are about 550 miles due north of Mafeking. The straight line drawn as suggested will run through territory owned or claimed by Bechuana tribes, but far the greater part of the area in question is desert land, and the Bechuana kraals or towns are to be found mainly on its eastern side, towards the frontier of the Transvaal.

The Tribes.

Taking the clans from south to north; the Baralong, whose best-known chief Montsioa died in 1910, are the southernmost, located on either side of the Molopo, the chief settlement being in Cape territory. North of the Baralong are the Bangwaketse and the Bamalete. Bathoen, the chief of the Bangwaketse, died in 1910, and was succeeded by Gaseitsiwe, whose town is Kanye, in $24^{\circ} 57'$ south latitude, sixty-six miles due north of Mafeking, to the west of the railway, the nearest station being Lobatsi, 30 miles. It stands on a plateau, about 200 feet above the surrounding country, and 3,750 feet above the level of the sea, the slopes of the hill being wooded, steep, and on two



sides precipitous. Below the hill are detached villages and a church and mission station, and below it also is the water-supply, which is fairly plentiful. East of Kanye, on the direct route to the north, seventy-seven miles from Mafeking, is Ramoutsa the town of the Bamalete, whose chief is Baitlotle; and fourteen miles due north of Ramoutsa is the station of Gaberones, 3,328 feet above sea-level. Beyond the country of the Bangwaketse and the Bamalete is the country of the Bakwena and of the Bakhatla, the latter being a small clan which moved out of the Transvaal and occupied a corner of the Bakwena territory on the Transvaal border. Sebele, the chief of the Bakwena, died in 1911, and the present chief is Sechele, whose town is Molepolole, but Gaberones is also within their borders. The Bakhatla town is Mochudi, and Linchwe is their chief. Molepolole, situated in $24^{\circ} 26'$ south latitude, is, like Kanye, a large native centre, lying to the west of the direct route to the north. It stands 4,000 feet above sea-level. It is over fifty miles north of Kanye, and about forty miles west of Mochudi, Mochudi being on the main telegraph and railway route, thirty-two miles north of Gaberones, and forty-six miles north of Ramoutsa. In Bakwena territory, about twenty miles south-east of Molepolole, is the old mission station of Kolobeng, where in years gone by David Livingstone lived and taught.

North and north-east of the Bakwena and the Bakhatla is the Bamangwato country, ruled over by Khama, the strongest and best-known of the Bechuana chiefs. His old town was at Shoshong, on the slopes of two parallel ranges of hills, about 120 miles north-east of Molepolole, at the junction of the northern trade route to the Zambesi and the north-western route to Lake Ngami; but, the water-supply being short and the sanitary conditions unsatisfactory, he moved over forty miles to the north-east, to the town of Palapye. Palapye, in $22^{\circ} 37'$ south latitude, stands on the northern slopes of the Chapong hills, at an elevation of 3,150 feet

The Bamangwato.

PART III. above the sea. This town he later deserted for his present capital of Serowe, thirty-five miles from Palapye Road, on the railway, 184 miles north of Ramoutsa. It is one of the largest native towns in South Africa, neatly laid out in the midst of a comparatively healthy country, where water is less scarce than at Palapye, and where several good dams have been constructed. Beyond Palapye the Bamangwato country, as defined in 1895, extends towards the east across the Macloutsie River, a little above its junction with the Limpopo, to the confluence of the Shashi and the Tuli Rivers. On the north it is bounded by the Shashi River up to its source, whence the boundary line runs in a northerly direction to the rivers which flow, or rather whose channels lead, from the north-east into the Makarikari Salt Lake. The line then skirts the eastern and southern shores of that lake to the point where the Botletle River joins that lake, and thence follows the course of the Botletle to the north-west, to its junction with the Tamalekane River, less than fifty miles distant from Lake Ngami. The north-eastern district of this territory, between the Macloutsie and the Shashi Rivers, was a few years ago in dispute between the Bamangwato and their constant foes the Matabele. Close to Khama's boundary line, but outside it, are the Tati gold-fields, with the township of Francistown 3,254 feet above sea-level, about ninety miles due north of Palapye; while Fort Tuli, belonging to the British South Africa Company, is also just beyond the border, 138 miles north-east of Palapye. North of the Bamangwato territory and the Makarikari Lake a more or less desert land extends to the basin of the Zambesi.

*The
Kalahari
Desert.*

The cattle posts of the Bechuana tribes which have been enumerated above, the Bangwaketse, the Bakwena, and the Bamangwato, are carried far to the west into the Kalahari desert. The Kalahari extends for hundreds of miles, with a very few nomad inhabitants, Kaffirs and Bushmen, who live

by hunting, and who, under the general name of Bakalahari, are in some sort dependents of the Bechuana chiefs and their peoples. In short, with one exception, the Bechuana Protectorate, so far as is at present known, consists of a strip of country on the eastern frontier, where, at long intervals, there is a series of Bechuana settlements, and of an enormous tract of little-known territory, in great measure arid desert, uninhabited or most sparsely peopled by a few nomads. The exception is Ngamiland in the north-west, Lake Ngami being about 500 miles from Serowe; the trade route runs thence by a long trek across the Kalahari until the Botletle River is reached, where water is plentiful. A shorter route would be across the desert from a point on the Molepolole-Lehutulu road, passing near the Boer settlement at Ghansi, and possibly by sinking wells this may be found practicable. At present the melons, called *tsama*, which grow freely, are the only means of sustaining cattle. Near its shores an offshoot of the Bamangwato established themselves a generation or more ago. They are known as the Batawana, and their chief Sekgome was a nephew of Khama. Raided by the Matabele, Sekgome's father Moremi found a refuge in the malarious swamps which surround the lake; but of late years the tribe came more into the open, claiming the lands round the lake, and the territory which lies to the north between the lake and the Chobe River, and raiding in their turn the weaker native tribes who come within their 'sphere of influence.' Order is now preserved by the establishment of a Resident Magistrate and a small detachment of police at Tsau. Feverish and unhealthy as is the immediate neighbourhood of Lake Ngami, there is a district about 100 miles south-west of the lake, which was a few years ago reached by a band of trekkers, and found to be in climate and in other respects suitable for settlement by white men. This is the Ghansi or Mokeng district, where, for a radius of sixty miles round the Ghansi pan or vley, there is good grazing

PART III. country on a flat surface, well supplied with open pools though not with running water, fairly well timbered, and healthy for men and cattle, though not for horses. The natives of this far-off district are Bushmen, who have suffered much at the hands of the people of the lake.

*The
Plateau.*

The whole of the territory now being described is part of the continental plateau of Africa, and its average level is at least 3,000 feet above the sea. The eastern part is fairly fertile in parts, and in parts well wooded; it is plain country broken by occasional ranges of hills. The Kalahari desert is no doubt in some measure desert properly so called; but, as knowledge spreads, grass and timber are found where they were not supposed to exist. The greater part of the Kalahari, and the southernmost section of the inhabited part of the Protectorate, drains, if it drains at all, to the Orange River through the channels of the Oup, the Nosop, and the Molopo. North of Kanye and Ramoutsa, on the eastern side of the Protectorate, the land slopes downwards to the north-east, and drains into the Limpopo, the chief feeders of that river within the Protectorate being the Notwane, which flows in a north-easterly direction, and joins the Limpopo near the station of Palla almost on the Tropic of Capricorn, and the Macloutsie River further north, flowing with an easterly course into the Limpopo. Far north of Palapye, at about 22° south latitude, the watershed of the Zambesi is reached; but there is an intervening tract of country stretching away to the westward, which, as far as is known, has no outlet to the ocean, except, it may be, at times of unusual overflow. At one end of this landlocked basin is the Makarikari Lake or salt pan, into which flows the water from the Okovango in certain seasons, and from which the headwaters of the Macloutsie River have sometimes been held to flow, and at the other end is Lake Ngami, the two lakes being connected by the channel of the Botletle River, which flows out of Lake Ngami, that lake being in turn formerly said to be

fed by a branch of the Okovango or Tioge River¹. There are other lakes or vleys scattered through the Kalahari, such as the probably mythical Anderson's Vley, due south of Lake Ngami, and Kumadau Lake, south-west of the Makarikari, on the line of the Botletle River; and the desert district north-east of the Makarikari has been known as the land of the Thousand Vleys. But to write of this region is to write of a hardly known land, and of a land whose geographical features have changed and are probably still in course of change.

The greater part of the Bechuana Protectorate, including Khama's country and Ngamiland, is within the tropics; the climate is therefore hot, and it is not a white man's country, but it is a dry heat, and not unhealthy except in the neighbourhood of the great rivers, the Limpopo and the Zambesi, and in the marshes round Lake Ngami and along the course of the Botletle River. The great difficulty is ever the want of an ample supply of good water, and the trade routes lead from pool to pool, often with long distances intervening.

The native population of the whole Protectorate according to the census of 1911 is 125,350, of whom more than half live in its southern section. In the north Khama's subjects number about 34,886, of whom some 30,000 have their dwelling-place at Serowe, while the rest are scattered at various hamlets and cattle stations within a radius of 200 miles from the town. The Bangwaketsi number 18,098, the Bakwena 13,103, the Bakhatla 10,706, and the Bamalete 4,462. The population of Ngamiland may be taken to be about 11,172. In addition to the natives, some thirteen hundred Europeans, trekkers, traders, missionaries, and employés of the Government or of private companies may be computed at any given time as living within the limits of the

¹ Lake Ngami is said to be gradually drying up, and to be little more than a reedy marsh. The area of open water is less than 100 miles in length. The Okovango wastes its waters in huge marshes; possibly at some time they may be utilized for irrigation and the swamps reclaimed.

PART III. Bechuana Protectorate. The census gave 1,692, but 363 — were railway passengers. The figures in 1904 were 120,776, 1,004 being European, but the native figures were exaggerated.

Power of the Crown. The Crown controls the territory in virtue of the declaration of protection made over it, and that power is exercised under the terms of the Foreign Jurisdiction Act, 1890, and the common law authority of the Crown. The exact extent and nature of the power have been carefully considered and defined with accuracy by the Court of Appeal, in 1910, in the case of the appeal of Sekgome Letsholathibe, a native chief of the Batawana, from the action of the High Commissioner for South Africa in providing, by a Proclamation of December, 1906, for his detention in a certain locality. This step was taken by the High Commissioner, as disputes had broken out as to the headship of the clan, and it was deemed desirable to prevent Sekgome from disturbing his nephew, Mathibe, the chief who had been made paramount by the High Commissioner. It was sought by Sekgome's friends and advisers to secure the issue of a habeas corpus addressed to the Secretary of State for the Colonies, but the application was rejected by the High Court, and the rejection, as affirmed, though on quite different grounds, by the Court of Appeal, established the wide character of the legislative power which had been conferred on the Crown, and through the Crown on the High Commissioner.¹

Government. In addition to the power of the Crown to legislate by Order in Council, power is given by the Order in Council of 1891, which is the basis of the constitution, to the High Commissioner to provide by Proclamation for the administration of justice, the raising of revenue, and generally for the peace, order, and good government of all persons within the limits of this Order, including the prohibition and punishment of acts tending to disturb the public peace. In accordance

Law.

¹ See Law Reports, [1910] 2 K.B. 576.

with this power, a Proclamation of 1891 put in force in the Protectorate the laws of the Cape as existing up to June 10, 1891, so far as they were applicable, and the basis of the law of the Protectorate is thus Roman-Dutch law as modified very seriously by Cape enactments, and as subsequently changed by the issue of Orders in Council, and of Proclamations by the High Commissioner. But in cases between natives, express provision is made by section 9 of the Proclamation of June 10, 1891, as amended by Proclamation No. 12 of 1898, that native law and custom should be followed, unless these laws and customs conflict, or cannot be clearly proved or are contrary to peace, order, and good government, in which case the law applicable to Europeans is to be followed.

Administrative and an appellate and revising judicial authority are exercised by the Resident Commissioner, whose head-quarters are conveniently, if oddly, situated at Mafeking in the Cape, and by two Assistant-Commissioners, one for the northern part of the Protectorate, with head-quarters at Francistown in the Tati Concessions, and the other for the southern Protectorate, with his head-quarters at Gaberones. These two officers have jurisdiction over all cases civil and criminal which concern Europeans, except in capital cases and certain other grave criminal charges, and civil cases in which the value of the property in dispute exceeds £1,000, and divorce and nullity cases. These cases must, under Proclamation No. 40 of 1912, be tried by a court consisting of a President, who must be a judge or an advocate, and two Assistant-Commissioners. Appeals lie from them to the Resident Commissioner, who also revises all sentences over one month's imprisonment, or £5 fine, or including lashes; and from his court an appeal lies to the Judicial Committee of the Privy Council in all cases where the amount in dispute is of the value of £500 or upwards, or by leave of the court or the Judicial Committee in any other case. An appeal lies

CH. X.

*Judiciary
and Ad-
ministra-
tion.*

PART III. on similar conditions from decisions of the Special Court, and also from any decision in matrimonial causes. Both the Assistant-Commissioners, who in their judicial capacity are termed Resident Magistrates, have Assistant-Resident Magistrates to aid them in their work, and there is a Resident Magistrate stationed at Ngamiland, and an Assistant-Resident Magistrate at Serowe, these officers being officers of police. The control of the administration generally is performed under the Resident Commissioner by the Government Secretary, who is also accountant.

*The
Powers of
the Chiefs.*

The most important part of the administration, as far as the natives are concerned, is carried on by their chiefs. The Resident Commissioner is empowered by section 10 of the Proclamation of 1891 to appoint a chief, on his request, to try civil and criminal cases and to make rules subject to the approval of the High Commissioner regulating such grants of jurisdiction. In accordance with this power, the native chiefs exercise a general jurisdiction over their tribes in both civil and criminal matters, except only in the few cases when it is considered necessary that the courts of the Protectorate should interfere in the interests of peace, or for the prevention or punishment of acts of violence to person or property. In the main, the chiefs, such as Bathoen, Sebele, and Khama, have exercised the powers thus granted to them with wisdom and satisfaction to their subjects.

Police.

For the maintenance of law and order there is a small police force known as the Bechuanaland Protectorate Police, numbering in 1912 about 179 men, the force being under the direct control of the Resident Commissioner. There were 14 officers, 52 European non-commissioned officers and men, and 73 non-commissioned officers and men recruited from Basutoland, and in addition, 40 Bechuanas employed as messengers, whose numbers will in due course be increased. The police are scattered in small detachments where needed, including a small detachment at Ngamiland,

and there are gaols at Francistown, Gaberones, and at Tsau, the Ngamiland head-quarters. CH. X.

The question of land tenure has been satisfactorily disposed of for the time being. It was agreed in 1895, when the question of the transfer of the control of the administration to the South Africa Company was being considered, that reserves should be marked out for the protesting chiefs, and even when the decision to hand over the administration had been abandoned, the reserves were marked out. The main burden of the work fell on Major Goold Adams, and the Proclamation defining the reserves was issued in March, 1899. The reserves then delimited were the country of the Bamangwato, under Khama, the Bakwena under Sebele, the Bangwaketse under Bathoen, the Bakhatla under Linchwe, and the Batawana under Sekgome. A further step was taken in 1908, when there were disputes between the Bakwena and the Bangwaketse as to the exact boundaries of their reserves: the Resident Commissioner met the tribes on the Mafatetwa River, from which the disputed part of the boundary line started; after a full discussion with Bathoen and Sebele, it was agreed to alter the boundary, and this was done by Proclamation No. 55 of 1908. In 1909, by Proclamation No. 28, the Bamalete reserve was finally delimited, this step having been delayed by the necessity of settling the exact boundary of certain concessions. In addition to these Proclamations, the position of land in the Protectorate is regulated by two Orders in Council of May 16, 1904, and January 10, 1910 respectively, which vested in the High Commissioner all the land outside the reserves and the Tati Concessions, except forty-one farms held by individual members of the Baralong tribe on the southern border. The area thus in the hands of the Crown comprises nearly half the total extent of the Protectorate, the greater portion lying in the Kalahari. The British South Africa Company hold blocks at Tuli, Gaberones, and Lobatsi, granted by the

*Land
Tenure.*

PART III. chiefs in respect of the railway, which have in the main
 —♦— been disposed of to farmers. The Company claim also certain rights of priority as regards prospecting for minerals and working of mines throughout the non-native reserves of the Protectorate.

The Tati District.

The Tati district is in a special position, and is now regulated by Proclamation No. 2 of 1911, as approved by an Order in Council of 1911. It is, though part of the Protectorate, in reality a triangular part of old Matabeleland conceded by Lobengula to Mr. S. H. Edwards in 1887. It is bounded on the west and south by the Shashi River from its source to its junction with the Tati and Ramaquaban Rivers, on the east by the latter river from the point of junction to its source, and on the north by the watershed of the two rivers. Its total area is roughly three thousand miles, and the extreme length about ninety-five miles. The railway to Bulawayo runs through the territory, there being six stations, and the head-quarters of the Assistant-Commissioner for Northern Bechuanaland is fixed at Francistown. The Company which owns the concession sells and lets the land to European settlers on advantageous terms.

Revenue and Expenditure.

The revenue of the territory for 1911-12 was £59,305, as compared with £52,067 in the previous year, and £31,563 in 1907-8. The increase is satisfactory, and it was only found necessary to provide a grant in aid of £10,000 from the Imperial exchequer for the year, while for 1912-13 no grant in aid was asked for, the deficit of some £15,000 being met from balances. The hut tax of £1 a hut yielded £34,365; customs, £13,287; and posts, £5,073. The other returns were derived from licences, revenue stamps, sales of Government property, and minor sources. The expenditure for the year was £65,935, as compared with £64,790 in the preceding year, and £75,851 in 1907-8. More than half the expenditure was on police, £34,749 in 1911-12, and the cost of the administration proper was £8,447.

The customs revenue is not collected locally save in the case of importations from German South-West Africa. By an agreement of June 29, 1910, made in contemplation of the termination on June 30 of the then existing Customs Union, it was agreed that the treasury of the Union of South Africa should pay to the Protectorate a sum in each year representing the same proportion to the total customs revenue of the Union in respect of the year as the average amount of the customs revenue of the Protectorate for the three complete years prior to May 31, 1910, bore to the average amount of the whole customs revenue of all the territories comprising the Customs Union received during the same periods, a fraction since ascertained to be $\cdot 27622$ per cent. By Proclamation No. 28 of 1911 a duty of excise was imposed on all cigarettes made in the Protectorate, and a corresponding surtax was imposed on all cigarettes introduced for consumption in the territory. The tax is collected in the territory on behalf of the Union Government, and a proportion calculated on the same basis as the customs revenue is paid to the Protectorate revenue.

CH. X.
—♦♦—
Customs.

The arrangements with the Union as to customs have deprived the Protectorate of statistics of trade, and the latest available are therefore those for 1909. In that year the total amount of imports was £96,096, being an increase of £5,258 over the preceding year; of this trade £34,904 represented the value of South African produce admitted duty free, the imports including candles, beer, brandy, sugar, tea, wines, boots and shoes, matches, soap, tobacco, and vehicles. The exports were valued at £123,627, but there fell to be added to that some £8,000 in respect of cattle exported, which were not included in the returns of the Customs Bureau, the total increase over the preceding year, being £42,089. The exports included grain valued at £20,625; meat, £15,443; hides and skins, £5,915; and gold from the Tati district, £55,619.

*Trade
Statistics.*

PART III. The natives carry on agriculture in a most primitive way.

—♦—
Agriculture.

The chiefs allot land in the reserves in accordance with native custom, but the large areas coupled with the small population have tended to render intensive cultivation needless. A patch of ground is rudely cleared, the tree stumps being left in to the great detriment of the ploughs, and, after ploughing, the seed, mealies or Kaffir corn, is sown and the land swept with a harrow composed of bushes; neither irrigation nor manuring is attempted. Only in the north of the Tati block do the Makalaka tribe, who are settled in a reserve, practise more skilful agriculture. If the rain fails the scarcity is very great, and in 1911-12 the rains arrived late, and were quite inadequate in quantity, while the heat was even greater than ordinary and did much damage. The natives in the Tati reserve, however, were fairly fortunate in securing crops, and the practice of storing crops mitigated to some extent the harm done. The cultivation of crops like tobacco and citrus trees is carried out by the European holders of land in the Tati Concessions.

Cattle.

The country, however, while not well suited as a whole for agriculture, unless indeed the possibility of using irrigation on a large scale is realized, is admirably suited for cattle, and the progress of the revenue in 1911-12 was directly due to the opening up at the end of 1910 of the public abattoirs in Johannesburg to the importation of Bechuanaland cattle for slaughter; cattle may also be introduced in the same way into Kimberley, and in 1911-12 11,812 cattle were disposed of in these two markets, the owners receiving about £5 a head. In addition, about 2,500 were disposed of for the Bulawayo market, the animals being killed at Tsessebe near the border, Khama's people, the owners, receiving the sum of about £10,000 for them. The growth in the number of cattle has been very great since 1904; in that year there were 139,071, and in 1911 323,911. During the same period sheep and goats increased from 319,223 to 358,336,

horses and mules from 1,016 to 1,632, and donkeys from 1,102 to 2,590. CH. X.

The most serious disease in the Protectorate is lung sickness, against which, by agreement with the chiefs and people, a campaign has been carried on since 1909. The plan has been adopted of killing every animal affected with the disease, and paying about a third of the value as compensation. The arrangement has involved heavy losses on the natives, who have borne them with good humour, though they have found it hard to realize that the 'lunger', as the animal which has recovered from the disease is called, instead of being as was long believed the most valuable, is a source of constant danger to the other members of the herd. With inoculation as a preventive of the disease, on the other hand, the natives have the fullest measure of sympathy, and readily submit their animals to the treatment, despite the fact that it occasions some loss. Gradually the treatment will doubtless reduce the disease within narrow limits. Other diseases are not important, and can be treated successfully by the vaccines prepared in the Bacteriological Laboratory near Pretoria. Against the introduction of east coast fever from the Transvaal provision was made by the setting up of a fence, which was carried by 1911 to Palla Camp, at the junction of the Notwani and Crocodile Rivers and the north-east corner of the Bakhatla reserve. North of this it has not been deemed necessary to carry the fence, which was only made at great expense and difficulty. The land immediately above the reserve is the Tati block, which is owned by the British South Africa Company, and which is occupied in part by farmers who will not permit the entry of infected stock, while further north again the Crocodile River grows deeper, and in the Western Transvaal the disease seems fully in hand. *Diseases of Stock.* *East Coast Fever.*

Mining so far has been confined to the land owned by the Tati Concessions Limited, on which mining has been intermittently in progress ever since 1868. The field is rich in *Mining.*

PART III. gold, but only a limited amount of serious work at prospecting has yet been carried out. The principal mines are the Premier Tati Monarch Mine and the Durham Prospect Gold Mine. From 1895 to 1911 the value of gold and silver extracted amounted to £227,011 : in 1909 the value of the gold and silver produced was £27,656, in 1910 £18,477, and in 1911 5,475 oz. of gold were raised, valued at £22,242.

The currency of the Bechuanaland Protectorate is assimilated by an Order in Council of January 23, 1911, to that of the rest of South Africa, and consists of gold, silver, and copper coins of the Royal Mint, and the Transvaal coins issued under the authority of Law No. 14 of 1891 by the Pretoria mint.

Posts and Telegraphs. Postal and telegraphic communication is carried out under the control of the Union Post Office, as in the case of Swaziland and Basutoland, and of the British South Africa Company respectively, at a much more moderate cost than would otherwise be the case. Bechuanaland shares in the Imperial penny postage scheme, but like the rest of South Africa retains the $\frac{1}{2}$ -oz. limit of weight for the penny letter in place of the oz. accepted by the rest of the Empire except the Australian Commonwealth.

Railways. Railway communication, both south and north, is provided by the railway from Vryburg in the Cape Province to Bulawayo in Rhodesia. The railway is the property of the Rhodesia Railways Company, and Mr. Chamberlain arranged with the Bechuana chiefs in 1895 for the grant of strips of land to the Company for the construction of the line. The Protectorate Administration for a period of ten years bound itself to pay £20,000 a year to the cost of the line, but this contribution ceased for good in September, 1908. The Protectorate benefits also by the easier connexion with Johannesburg afforded by the line from Mafeking to Zeerust completed in November, 1912, by the Union Railway Administration. Elsewhere in the Protectorate the means of communication is

by ox wagon, and the difficulties of travelling are increased by long spells of country without water, sometimes in the case of the Kalahari stretching for a hundred miles. The best pace of an ox wagon is but three miles an hour, and in the sandy parts of the Kalahari the pace is scarcely half this rate.

CH. X.



Education in the Protectorate, as in Basutoland, formed the subject of a report¹ by Mr. E. B. Sargant in 1905, and since that date several of his suggestions have been adopted. The most important perhaps is the establishment in the native reserves of the Bangwaketsi, Bakwena, and Bamalete of School Committees consisting of the Assistant Commissioner as chairman, the resident missionary as secretary, and the paramount chief and a representative of the people. In each case the people voluntarily tax themselves to raise funds for educational purposes, the amount being collected by the paramount chief simultaneously with the collection of the hut tax. The Government, at the request of the natives, holds and administers the money. With the funds thus rendered available the Committee in the Bangwaketsi reserve employ two native teachers, in the Bakwena reserve three teachers are employed, and savings are being made for the erection of a school-house, while the Bamalete have two teachers and are building a schoolroom.

Education.

In addition to these efforts the Government contributes £500 a year to the London Missionary Society in recognition of its work in educating the natives; the Society has schools at Kanye, Molepolole, Shoshong, Serowe and smaller places. At Molepolole and Serowe the schools are under the control of lady teachers. Education for the Bakhatla tribes is provided by the Dutch Reformed Mission, which receives a grant of £150 from the Government, and a like amount is given to the Native Institution established by the London Missionary Society at Tiger Kloof near Vryburg in

Mission Schools.

¹ See Parl. Paper, Cd. 4119.

PART III. the Cape Province, where boys are taught the elements of
 —♦♦— carpentry and masonry, no fewer than thirty-two boys from
 the Protectorate attending there in 1912.

Much is being done by the missionary institutions to encourage the natives in acquiring useful training. In addition to the ordinary school work, classes for the boys in carpentering and for the girls in needlework are held at all the large schools, and the people in the country districts are aided by the establishment of out-station schools under native teachers. The figures showing the attendance of children at the inspection of the schools have improved, but the numbers, 396 boys and 979 girls, bear eloquent testimony to the obstacles in the way of learning interposed by the practice of parents of sending their sons to herd cattle at the stock posts.

*Schools for
Europeans.*

There are three schools for Europeans in the Protectorate, at Serowe, at Francistown, and at Magalapye, the latter being under the control of the railway company, and affording teaching for the children of railway servants. The other two are managed by local committees, and they all three received small grants from the Administration in 1911-12.

Christianity.

That Christianity has been a real force in the land is shown by the example of Khama, who in earlier days risked much for his religion, and who under the guidance of Mr. Hepburn, a missionary now no longer with him, ruled and still rules his people firmly and well; a determined foe of strong liquor, the use of which he absolutely prohibits, a friend of education, and an enlightened and far-seeing man. In many cases it may be allowed that the Christianity engrafted upon the Bechuana tribes has a considerable alloy of native superstition; but none the less it has had a softening and a civilizing influence, even where the conversion may only have been skin-deep. The chief share of the work must be credited to the London missionaries, but other agencies have also been in the field. At Mochudi there is a minister of the Dutch Reformed Church, and at Ramoutsa

there are German missionaries. What will be the future of the Bechuana peoples, now that a railway runs through their midst, it is difficult to forecast. Hitherto, living pastoral and agricultural lives on what are large native reserves, removed from towns and mining centres, they have dwelt safely under the tribal system to which they have ever been accustomed, occasionally disputing among themselves, often suffering from bad seasons, but no longer raided either by black or by white men.¹

¹ The best authority for the Bechuanaland Protectorate is the series of Annual Reports by the Resident Commissioners. See also for Khama the account of Lord Selborne's visit given in Parl. Paper, Cd. 3094, pp. 9-20, and Mr. Sargant's report in Cd. 4119, pp. 39-43.

CHAPTER XI

SOUTHERN RHODESIA

PART III. **THE** boundaries of Southern Rhodesia are defined by the Order in Council of October 20, 1898, to be the Portuguese Possessions, the South African Republic, now the Transvaal Province, to a point opposite the mouth of the river Shashi, by that river to its junction with the Tati and Ramaquaban Rivers, thence by the Ramaquaban River to its source, thence by the waters Shashi and Ramaquaban until the watershed strikes the Hunter's road, called the Pandamatenka road, thence by that road to the river Zambesi, and by that river to the Portuguese boundary. These limits were to include a ten miles' radius round Tuli, but not the Tati district as defined in the charter of 1889 granted to the British South Africa Company. In that charter (clause 2) the Tati district is defined to be bounded as follows: from the place where the Shashi River rises to its junction with the Tati and Ramaquaban Rivers, thence along the Ramaquaban River to its place of origin and thence along the watershed of these rivers.

Boundary with Portugal. The boundary with Portugal on the east extends from the Limpopo River, which marks the frontier of the Transvaal, to the Zambesi, and it was generally defined in an agreement of June 11, 1891, Article II of which provided that the boundary should commence at a point on the Zambesi south of the mouth of the Luangwa River, then run directly southwards to the sixteenth parallel of south latitude, then follow that parallel to its intersection with the 31st degree of longitude east, then run eastwards to the point where the river Mazoe is intersected by the 33rd degree of west longitude. Thence

it should follow that degree southwards to the point of its intersection with $18^{\circ} 30'$ south latitude, whence it should follow the upper part of the eastern slope of the Manica plateau southwards to the centre of the main channel of the Sabi, then follow that channel to its confluence with the Lundi or Lunte, and then run direct to the north-east point of the frontier of the then South African Republic. It was to be understood that in tracing the boundary along the slope of the plateau, no territory west of $32^{\circ} 30'$ east longitude and east of 33° east longitude would be included in the Portuguese and British spheres respectively. The treaty contained also important stipulations regarding the freedom of navigation of the Zambesi and its affluents, and bound the Portuguese Government to facilitate transit over the Shire, the Pungwe, the Busi, and the Limpopo, and not to levy for a period of twenty-five years transit dues over goods in transit between the east coast and the British sphere exceeding three per cent. Portugal was also to construct a railway from Pungwe to the British sphere and to lease to the United Kingdom a piece of land at Chinde for the landing, storing, and transhipment of goods; a lease to that effect was duly executed in 1898.

The portion of the boundary from the Zambesi to the Mazoe River was provisionally surveyed in 1903-4, and the delimitation and demarcation took place in April—October, 1905, the results of the delimitation being summed up in the *procès-verbaux* signed by the British and Portuguese Commissioners on October 24, 1905. It was not, however, until October 21—November 20, 1911, that a final agreement to accept the delimitation of the frontier was arrived at, the line demarcated being then formally adopted by notes exchanged between the British and Portuguese Governments. As delimited, the boundary takes advantage wherever possible of natural features, following the thalweg of the Karemwe, Kazi, Msengezi, and Mkumvura Rivers. From a mile below the *From the Zambesi to the Mazoe River.*

PART III. village of Chigango, on the Mkumvura, it proceeds to Mount Gungwa, thence to Mount Ganganyama, thence to Kahire Hill, thence to Zizingwe Hill, the Chitanga Ridge, Mount Chera, Mount Kawpi, and to the left bank of the Mazoe, above the confluence with the Nyangombe stream in latitude $16^{\circ} 42' 14''$ and longitude east $32^{\circ} 45' 33\frac{1}{2}''$. Thereafter it follows the Mazoe to the Baobab beacon, which is about 120 metres distant from a point on the south bank of the Mazoe near the confluence of the Kagosa and Mazoe.

*From the
Mazoe to
 $18^{\circ} 30'$.*

The second section of the line from the Mazoe to $18^{\circ} 30'$ south latitude was surveyed in 1898, and procès-verbaux were drawn up by the Commissioners in that year. The understandings between the two Governments as to proposed modifications in the portion of the line from the Mazoe to Mount Karera were recorded in an exchange of notes dated March 4 and April 28, 1902, and a further exchange of notes accepting this line and the line from Mount Karera to $18^{\circ} 30'$ took place on January 18 and April 12, 1904. The exact line as finally agreed upon is recorded in an exchange of notes of July 22 and August 9, 1912.¹ From the Baobab beacon it runs by Mount Mek to Mount Schuvenga, whence it turns westward and runs to Mount Nyambhara, a hill 3,200 feet high, situated about six miles west-south-west of Mount Schuvenga. From Mount Nyambhara the line turns south-east and runs to Mount Karera. From Karera the line becomes more southerly and runs to Mount Vumaninga, whence it trends southwards crossing the river Ruenya until it reaches Mount Mhanda. From Mount Mhanda it turns south-east to Mount Nyakuru and the river Gaeresi. It follows then the Gaeresi to its junction with the river Jora, which it follows to Mount Juru. From Juru it is carried to Mount Nyanga, and thence along the river Ruera to its junction with the Pungwe. Then it follows the course of the River Mombezi to its source. Thence it proceeds by Mount

¹ See Parl. Paper, Cd. 6449.

Zaramira and the channel of the river Honde to its junction with the river Garara. - CH. XI.

The third section of the boundary from $18^{\circ} 30'$ south latitude to the junction of the Sabi and Lundi Rivers formed the subject of a reference to arbitration under an agreement of January 7, 1895. The decision of the arbitrator was delivered on January 30, 1897, and by it the boundary was determined as follows. On leaving the point of the intersection of the $18^{\circ} 30'$ parallel with 33° east longitude, the boundary runs due west to a point situated at the intersection of the parallel by a straight line drawn from the stone pinnacle on the crest of Mahemasemika, to a height on the northern spur of Mount Panga marked 6,340 feet. Thence it ascends in a straight line to the marked point of Panga, and following the watershed to a point marked 6,504 feet reaches the summit of Panga at 6,970 feet. Thence it runs in a straight line to a point of 3,890 feet, and then crosses the river Inyamkarara, to a point 6,740 feet high, north of Mount Gorongoe. After this it follows the watershed to the summit of Mount Shuara, 5,540 feet, and then following the watershed between the Inyamkarara and the Shimezi, reaches Mount Venga, 5,550 feet. From that mountain it proceeds to Mount Vumba and thence to Chaura and Inyamatumba and thence to Mount Guzane. From this point it proceeds to the point of the intersection of $32^{\circ} 30'$ east longitude by $20^{\circ} 42' 17''$ south latitude. Then following the meridian it runs to the thalweg of the Sabi, and then ascends the channel to its confluence with the Lundi. The line so laid down was demarcated by Boundary Commissioners in 1898, and their demarcation was finally adopted by the two Governments in an exchange of notes of June 3, 1907.

The fourth section from the junction of the Lundi and the Sabi to the Limpopo was delimited in 1902-3, and the tracing made by the Boundary Commissioners was accepted

*From
18° 30' to
the Sabi
and Lundi
Rivers.*

*From the
Sabi to the
Limpopo.*

PART III. by the two Governments by an exchange of notes of December 21, 1903 and July 19, 1904. This agreement was further confirmed by the notes exchanged on June 3, 1907.

Within the territory, Bulawayo is the western centre, Salisbury the north-eastern, and Tuli the southernmost station. From Tuli to Bulawayo is a distance of 140 to 150 miles. From Tuli to Salisbury is a distance of 388 miles, the route passing through Nuanetsi, Victoria, and Charter. Victoria is 200 miles north-east of Tuli, and 188 miles due south of Salisbury; and between Victoria and Salisbury is Fort Charter, 123 miles due north of Victoria, 65 miles due south of Salisbury.

*The
Plateau.*

Matabeleland and Mashonaland consist in the main of a large plateau, which is really a continuation of the plateau of the Transvaal, and which has an average height of 3,500 to 4,000 feet. It is reached by a gradual ascent from the south and west, but is steep towards the north and east, and in the Umtali district, on the eastern frontier, some of the mountain tops rise to a height of 7,000 and 8,000 feet. The plateau is crossed diagonally by the range of the Matoppo mountains, which run for some 400 miles from the Tati district in the south-west to Mount Hampden in the north-east. This range is the water-parting between the streams which run north to the Zambesi, and those which run south to the Limpopo and Sabi Rivers. Tati, which is not within the limits of the Company's territory, lies at the foot of the mountains at their south-western end, at a height of from 2,600 to 2,700 feet above the sea. The level of Bulawayo, on the northern slope of the range, is about 4,500 feet. Victoria, on the south-eastern side of the mountains, is 3,670 feet high, and at their north-eastern end, the ground on which the town of Salisbury stands just reaches the level of 5,000 feet. Granite boulders and kopjes or knolls are widely scattered through the table-land, the rivers are many, there is in parts fine

timber, rich pasturage, and a fertile soil, apart from the wealth which may be found in the minerals.

CH. XI.

Climate.

The whole of the territory is within the tropics, but, in spite of the heat, the climate, owing to the height of the land above the sea, is in most parts and at most times of the year healthy for Europeans. The high veld of Matabeleland is said to be more healthy than some of the Mashonaland districts, as having been more depastured; for, where the grass is higher and the vegetation more luxuriant, the end of the rainy season, which extends from December to March, threatens malarial fever. The average range of temperature on the plateau has been stated to be from 36° to 86° , though the thermometer rises at times to over 100° in the shade. At Bulawayo the average temperature is about 70° . The average rainfall during the four years 1897-1901 was, Mashonaland 37.6 inches, and Matabeleland 23.2 inches; for a period of thirteen years the figures have been 32.38 and 23.36 inches. The winter months are from May to August; the prevailing wind, cold in winter, is from the south-east. A frost of more than two degrees seldom occurs. No snow has ever been known.

The results of the census held in Southern Rhodesia in May, 1911, showed a total population of 771,077, of whom the white population numbered 23,606 or 3.06 per cent., natives of Central African and South African origin, 744,559 or 96.56 per cent., and Asiatics and other coloured persons, including those of mixed race, 2,912, being .38 per cent. In 1904 the census returned the numbers of Europeans at 12,596; natives, 591,493, and Asiatics, &c., 1,944. The total rate of increase in the European population was, therefore, 87.41 per cent., that of natives, 25.88, and that of Asiatics, &c., 49.79, the latter number being of no great consequence, owing to the small figures involved. Part, too, of the increase may be due to the fact that in 1911 racial distinctions were more carefully marked, and a number of Cape

PART III. 'boys' were included as coloured persons, who in the earlier census may have been counted as natives. Compared with the Union, the preponderance of natives is marked: in the Union in 1911, 21.45 of the inhabitants were white, 68.16 natives, and 10.39 of other coloured races. There were remarkable increases of whites in the urban areas of Salisbury, Bulawayo, Gwelo, Umtali, and Hartley. The growth of the number of white women has been steady and satisfactory, showing an increased immigration of a permanent character and improved social conditions. In 1904 the percentage was only 32.77, in 1907 it rose to 37.95, and in 1911 to 45.11. The figures show that the rate of immigration from other parts of the Union of South Africa is increasing, and this fact will, doubtless, in due course have a considerable effect on the political history of the country. Nevertheless, even in 1911 the proportion of the white population which was British-born in the narrower sense of the term British was nearly 41 per cent. as against 30.66 per cent. born in the Union and 13.65 per cent. born in Southern Rhodesia. Over 90 per cent. of the white population were British-born in the wide sense of the term, and it is curious to note that Russian subjects headed the list of alien settlers. The Germans show nearly an equal proportion of women to men, a fact pointing to their superior domesticity to the British.

Occupations.

Of the occupations of the white population, importance attaches to the large increase in the number of those engaged in farming and cognate employments, which was 2,140 as against 1,028 in 1904: industrial occupations, including mining, accounted for 5,922 as against 2,706, commerce for 3,057 as against 1,939, while the growth in the professional class had been comparatively small, a sure indication of the commercial and agricultural growth of the country. Women play but a small part in industrial matters, only 10 per cent. appearing in any wage-earning capacity.

The Indians.

Of the mixed and coloured population, Indians numbered

701 as against 723 in 1904: comparatively few are married, and the population is practically stationary, the result of the South African immigration laws. The members of the community are, as far as knowledge of English is concerned, mainly illiterate, and of the Hindu or Mohammedan religion.

Of the native population, 33,117 belonged to tribes located north of the Zambesi, 1,654 to tribes of Bantu origin, not indigenous to Southern Rhodesia, 57 to non-Bantu tribes such as Hottentot and Bushman, and 2,324 were not specifically assigned to any race, being for the most part South African natives not under tribal conditions. To the Mashonas, including the Baroswi and its various subdivisions, the Bahera, Bashungwe, Batonga, and other tribes of Mashonaland were assigned 521,074, of whom 272,804 were women; to the Matabele, including the Abenzansi, Abenhla, Amakalanga, Abatonka, Abesankwe, Abanyai, Abilima, and others living in Matabeleland, 157,164, of whom 80,921 were women: these figures in both cases are significant in the predominance in number of females. Of the natives in the country at the date of the census, about 49,300 were classified as alien to Southern Rhodesia, about 40 per cent. belonging to Northern Rhodesia, 30 per cent. to Nyasaland, and the remainder to the Portuguese territories and the Union.

Of the natives, 41,860 were returned as working in mines, 46,106 were employed by householders in various domestic capacities, and the vast majority were under tribal conditions, maintaining themselves in the main by agriculture.

Of the urban districts, Bulawayo had 5,199 persons of European descent, Salisbury, 3,478; Umtali, 1,056; Gwelo, 570; Gatooma, 409; Penhalonga village, 330; and Hartley village, 175.

The problems of administration presented to the Company by the existence of so large a European population and so important a mass of natives are obviously difficult, and the

CH. XI.

*The Natives.**Occupations.**Urban Districts.**Government.*

PART III. present position of affairs is admittedly transitory. Legislative authority in the country is vested in a Legislative Council, consisting of the Administrator appointed by the Company, and eighteen members of whom, under the Order in Council of May 4, 1911, as amended in 1913, six are appointed by the Company, subject to the approval of the Secretary of State, and twelve are elected. It will be seen that, though the Administrator has a casting vote in case of equality of votes, the control of legislation definitely rests with the elected members, this being a concession obtained after long representations. The original Order in Council of 1898 constituting a legislature provided for nine members, five being nominees: the number was increased to fourteen, half elective, in 1903. In 1911 the number was fixed at twelve, of whom seven were elective. The Company proposed in 1913 to change the numbers from five and seven to eight and fourteen respectively; ultimately the numbers were fixed at six and twelve. But the powers of the elected members are restricted by the fact that the Council may not consider any vote or ordinance for the imposition of a tax, or any appropriation of monies, except on the recommendation of the Administrator, and that ordinances interfering with the land and other rights of the Company shall not be proceeded with except with the consent of the Administrator. The power of the Council to legislate is subject to the assent of the High Commissioner to any measure, and even after the assent of the High Commissioner has been given, any legislation may be disallowed within a year by the Secretary of State. Moreover, the High Commissioner is represented on the Council by the Resident Commissioner, who has a voice though not a vote, he can legislate in virtue of the Order in Council of May 9, 1891¹, by Proclamation, and the Crown

¹ See above, p. 226. For the extent of the legislative authority of the Legislative Council, see *R. v. McChree*, *South African Law Reports*, [1913] App. Div. 199; *Burrowes v. British South Africa Co.*, 16 S. C. R. 483.

can legislate by Order in Council, which is paramount to all other legislation, and cannot be varied by Ordinance or Proclamation. CH. XI.
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The electorate includes under Ordinance No. 14 of 1912 all British subjects or persons who have taken an oath of intention to reside permanently and bear allegiance to the Crown, provided that they have for the preceding six months been occupiers of a building, which with or without land is valued at £150 a year, or are registered owners of block or reef claims, or of an alluvial claim, or a coal location or precious stones claim, or have earned wages at the rate of £100 a year. These conditions are based, like so much in Southern Rhodesia, on the Cape conditions, and similarly there are disqualifications for insanity, serious crime involving a sentence of imprisonment without the option of fine, and every voter must be able to sign his name, address, and occupation, while mere communal holding does not qualify for the vote. There is no colour bar, but a voter must, if required, be able to write from dictation fifty words in English, the stress laid on the English tongue being a protest against the equality of Dutch and English in the Union. *The
Electorate.*

The administration is carried on by the Administrator appointed by the Company, who is assisted in his duties by an Executive Council of not less than three members appointed by the Company, with the approval of the Secretary of State. The Administrator is not bound to follow the advice of the Council, but, if he refuses to accept it, must report his action to the Company. The Resident Commissioner appointed by the High Commissioner sits as a member of the Executive Council, and is entitled to all possible information regarding the proceedings of the Government in its various branches, and he reports to the High Commissioner on the proceedings of the Company's administration. *The
Executive
Govern-
ment.*

Jurisdiction within the territory is exercised by a High Court, which has full civil and criminal jurisdiction in all *The
Judiciary.*

PART III. cases whatever. The law administered is the Cape law as it stood up to June 10, 1891, as modified since by Rhodesian legislation, whether in the form of Order in Council, Proclamation, or Ordinance, or notice having the force of law. In civil cases between natives the High Court and the Magistrates' Courts must follow native law, except where it is repugnant to natural justice or morality, or to any Order in Council, Proclamation, or Ordinance. In any such case the Court may receive assistance from assessors, but the decision shall be that of the Judge alone. Polygamous marriages may be recognized if recognized by native law¹. From any decision of the High Court in a civil case, where the value in dispute exceeds £100, an appeal lies to the Appellate Division of the Supreme Court of South Africa, and thence to the Privy Council: in other cases it lies by leave of the High Court. In criminal cases the High Court may reserve for the Supreme Court a point of law, and a defendant who has questioned an irregularity of procedure at his trial may with the leave of the Court appeal. Sentences of death must be confirmed by the High Commissioner before they can be executed.

Magistrates' Courts.

The Order in Council of 1898 also establishes Magistrates' Courts with jurisdiction similar to that exercised in the Cape both in criminal and civil matters, and subject to appeal to the High Court on similar conditions to those applying in the Cape. This jurisdiction is further defined by Ordinance No. 7 of 1911, and the High Commissioner's Proclamation No. 55 of 1910 expressly extends the jurisdiction of these magistrates to all civil cases between natives.

Both Judges and Magistrates are rendered secure in the tenure of their office by the fact that the Company cannot remove them from their positions: the High Commissioner

¹ See above, p. 36, n. 1. Recent decisions in the Transvaal and Cape show that polygamous marriages including marriages of Hindus and Mohammedans are not recognized as valid, and that in the Cape at least the first marriage even is not valid; see *R. v. Fatima*, [1912] T.P.D. 59; *Esop v. Minister of Interior*, Parl. Paper, Cd. 6940, pp. 16-17.

may suspend, but the Secretary of State must confirm the suspension. Judges are appointed by the Secretary of State on the nomination of the Company, and Magistrates by the Administrator with the assent of the High Commissioner.

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Elaborate provision is made for the safeguarding of native interests. The head of the native side of the Administration is the Secretary for Native Affairs, who is assisted by Native Commissioners and Assistant Native Commissioners, whose positions are secured by similar provisions to those respecting Magistrates. No disabilities or restrictions may be placed on natives by Ordinance which do not equally apply to Europeans, except with the previous consent of the Secretary of State, save as regards the supply of arms, ammunition, and liquor. The Company is required from time to time to assign to the tribes in Rhodesia land sufficient for their occupation¹, and suitable for their agricultural and pastoral requirements, including in all cases a fair and equitable proportion of springs or permanent water. About 40,000 square miles of land have been so set apart as reserves. All questions on the settlement of natives in the territory must be dealt with by the Administrator in Council, but the decisions are subject to review by the High Commissioner. A native may acquire and dispose of land on the same conditions as a non-native, but no contract for alienating native land is valid unless made in the presence of a Magistrate, attested by him and certified by him to be made for a fair consideration, and with the full understanding by the natives of its terms. All mineral rights are assigned to the Company, and for the working of minerals natives may be dispossessed, but only with the approval of the High Commissioner and on being supplied with fair compensation in land elsewhere. No natives may be removed from any kraal assigned to them for occupation, save with the approval of the High Com-

*Native
Affairs.*

¹ The Company claims the rights to the lands of the territory other than those alienated by it.

PART III. missioner, given after a full inquiry by the Administrator in Council. The High Commissioner is authorized to obtain opinions on questions affecting natives from the High Court, and to constitute subordinate courts consisting of a Magistrate and two assessors, to report on questions referred to them by the High Commissioner. In the case of revolt by a tribe the Administrator may impose a fine, but the High Commissioner may remit it in whole or part. Moreover, in all action with regard to matters affecting natives the High Commissioner must report to the Secretary of State, who may review any matter and reverse or alter the decision of the High Commissioner.

*Native
Adminis-
tration.*

The High Commissioner's Proclamation No. 55 of 1910 details the system of native administration. The Administrator in Council exercises all political control and authority, and may subdivide tribes and divide the territory into provinces, &c., with the approval of the High Commissioner. The permanent head of the department, the Secretary, may also be Administrator; if so, there must be a special officer as assistant to him for the purpose of the duties connected with native affairs. The Secretary is charged with the hearing of petitions, the inquiry into cases of chieftainship, disputes and tribal quarrels, &c. For each Province there shall be a Chief Native Commissioner, for each district a Native Commissioner, who may be the Magistrate or Assistant-Magistrate of the district. A Native Commissioner shall have in civil proceedings where natives alone are concerned and in criminal cases where the accused is a native the same jurisdiction as a Magistrate, and shall be subject to the same appeal and be bound by the same rules of law. Any sentence of over a month's imprisonment or £5 fine or lashes must be sent for review to the High Court. No native may remove from one district to another without the consent of the Native Commissioners concerned. With the approval of the Administrator in Council the Commissioner may assign

lands for huts, gardens and grazing grounds for each kraal on vacant land or reserves in his district, and prohibit where desirable the erection of new kraals or the cultivation of new gardens. He may also fix the number of huts which make up a kraal, and shall apportion the flow of water in streams among the natives; he is responsible for the proper registration of huts in his district and for the collection of the hut tax.

Each Native Commissioner is assisted by native messengers, whose duties are to carry messages from him to chiefs and district headmen, to warn natives of the collection of native tax, to summon parties to civil cases, and to report any irregularities or crimes. Any attempts at extortion by messengers are seriously punished. *Native Messengers.*

The chiefs in charge of the tribes shall be appointed by the Administrator in Council, and shall hold office at pleasure and contingent on good behaviour. A chief's duties include acting as a constable for the apprehension of criminals, the notification to the Native Commissioner of cases of crime, of deaths and outbreaks of disease among the tribes or their herds, the publication of orders, the nomination of district headmen for appointment by the Secretary for Native Affairs, the notification of new-comers, the supply of men for purposes of defence and repressing disorder if called on to do so; he is also responsible for the general good order of his tribe, and shall assist in the collection of taxes when these are due. *Native Chiefs.*

Headmen are appointed for the sections of the tribes on the recommendation of chiefs which the Administrator usually accepts. They have analogous duties towards the chiefs to those of the latter to the Native Commissioners, and have the powers of constables for the arrest of native offenders. They are also bound to secure that new kraals are not erected without proper authority. The heads of kraals again are bound to report to the headman or chief or Commissioner *Native Headmen.*

PART III. the occurrence of deaths or disease or crimes, the finding of
—♦— lost stock, and the presence of strangers.

All natives are required to obey the lawful orders of their headmen and chiefs and of the Native Commissioners, and to co-operate in such matters as locust destruction, prevention of grass fires, repression of cattle diseases, and similar matters. Magistrates are given full jurisdiction in all civil cases between natives only, and Native Commissioners are permitted before deciding any native civil suit to obtain the opinion of the High Court which they must accept.

The chief question of importance affecting the natives is, as usual, the land question. In Matabeleland, owing to the action of large landowners in increasing the demands on their native tenants, many of the natives are settling on the reserves, which though still large may not be able to furnish accommodation for all the natives. The Chief Native Commissioner for Matabeleland in his report for 1912 recommends that a first step towards the introduction of individual tenure, with its economic advantages, should be taken in the form of the grant to the more advanced natives of vested rights in their land on the model of the Glen Grey system in the Cape.

The principal measures differentially affecting natives are those which deal with the prohibition of the possession of arms and ammunition, those restricting the use of liquor, and since 1911 of Kaffir beer, and the pass laws regulating the movements of natives. The regulations for recruiting as revised in 1911 are also elaborate, and are framed to secure their protection against fraud and their good treatment. In 1912 a further step of importance in native policy was taken by starting dispensaries for their treatment in ill health.

Police.

The control of the police was taken away from the Company as a result of the Jameson incursion, and the control of any military police force is still reserved to the High Commissioner under the terms of the Order in Council of August 10, 1909. Under that Order, however, military police

is defined to mean any police force which the High Commissioner declares to be on active service during the period of such service. Unless the force is so declared to be on active service, neither police nor volunteers may undertake anything in the nature of a military expedition, and if so declared to be on active service the control passes to the High Commissioner, and until 1913 was exercised by the Resident Commissioner as Commandant-General. By an Order in Council of Feb. 11, 1913, the chief command of all police or volunteer forces in Southern Rhodesia, whether on active service or not, is vested in a Commandant-General, appointed by the Company with the approval of the Secretary of State and paid by the Company. The control of the appointment, promotion, and dismissal of the police and volunteer force officers rests with the High Commissioner until further provision is made by Ordinance. Under the provisions of this Order in Council the British South Africa Police has become a civil force, and is supplemented by the Rhodesia Volunteers.

The Administrator with the concurrence of the Commandant-General may call out in case of emergency such number of men as is deemed necessary for the defence of the territory.

The revenue of the territory for 1910-11 amounted to £773,270 as against £620,243 in the previous year: the expenditure was £752,057 as against £614,405 in 1909-10. Customs dues yielded £273,759 as against £208,412, and postal and telegraph receipts £91,801 as against £74,300. Since 1905-6 the balance of revenue over expenditure has been satisfactory. In the accounts for 1911-12 the revenue was given at £808,602, with increases under all heads, and the expenditure at £837,805, the deficit being made good out of the accumulated surplus of £56,289. There is levied on each native a tax of £1, with an additional ten shillings for each wife more than one: exemptions are given in respect

*Revenue
and Ex-
penditure.*

PART III. of natives unable from ill health or age to work. The total proceeds of the native tax and fees in 1909-10 was £209,423, and in 1910-11 £215,030.

Education. Education as far as Europeans are concerned is in a satisfactory state. The census of 1911 showed that at Government and Government aided schools there were being educated 1,551 children, 279 at private schools, 712 at home, 16 at a Sunday school, 112 were unspecified, 113 were following various occupations, and only 433 were receiving no education. About sixteen per cent. of the whole population was illiterate, but only .87 of that below fourteen years of age, despite the difficulties of affording education in some of the rural areas. By December 31, 1912, the number of Government schools had increased to 44 from 28 in 1909, and there were five aided schools: the enrolment was 2,530. In 1906 Mr. Beit bequeathed £200,000 for educational, charitable, and other public purposes in Rhodesia, and there are three Rhodes scholarships tenable at Oxford which are annually awarded to Rhodesians. Higher education is provided in the public schools for boys and girls at Bulawayo and Salisbury. The religious problem has been disposed of by placing the first half-hour in each school-day at the disposal of the different denominations, with a conscience clause permitting any parent to have secular instruction given instead. Nature study and handicrafts are taught.

Native Education. The education of natives is still backward, only about seven per cent. of the natives employed by European householders being able to read and write. The education law of the territory provides for a grant not exceeding £90 a teacher per annum to schools for coloured children, where there is an adequate attendance, and where there is teaching of handiwork; in 1912 there were schools open at Salisbury and Bulawayo receiving Government grants with an enrolment at the end of the year of 731. Annual grants may be made to native schools provided that there are at least

40 pupils who have attended 150 days in the year, that industrial work is systematically taught, that the pupils are taught to speak and understand the English language, and are taught habits of discipline and cleanliness. In 1912, 170 schools with 14,246 pupils received grants; 12 other schools with 490 still earned no grants, while many others did not send reports. As a result of the report of the Committee on Native Affairs of 1910, the Government is taking steps to open up educational institutions for agricultural and industrial training under Government control in selected native districts, and the natives show great eagerness for education, so far at least as it extends to reading and writing. Most of the work is of course still in the hands of the various missionary bodies. Female pupils in increasing numbers are taught domestic work, but so far without increasing the number ready to take domestic service.

The majority of the white people belong to the Protestant *Religion*. denominations; 10,545 were according to the census of 1911 members of the Anglican community, 3,256 belonged to the Dutch Reformed Church, 2,632 were Presbyterians, and 1,626 Wesleyan Methodist. The numbers of Roman Catholics and of members of the Dutch Reformed Church have not increased in the same proportions as the other main denominations, despite the fact of the growth in the proportion of immigrants into the territory from the rest of South Africa and especially from the Union. The number of places of worship was returned as 39 for Europeans and 116 for natives, and there were 47 and 182 Sunday schools respectively. The native congregations were totalled as 27,246 adults, showing that out of the native population the missions as yet influenced only about a sixteenth of the adults. The greatest numbers were claimed by the American Methodist Episcopal (8,489), London Missionary Society (4,795), Wesleyan Methodists (4,780), and the Church of England (2,995). Other churches represented were the

PART III. Roman Catholic, Dutch Reformed Church, the Presbyterian, ———— Congregational, Brethren in Christ, Church of Christ, and Salvation Army.

Imports. The total imports of merchandise into Southern Rhodesia for 1911 were valued at £2,669,620, as compared with £2,272,447 in the preceding year, and £1,363,053 in 1907. In addition there were Government imports of £46,657 as against £56,554 and £25,563 in these years, and specie to the amount of £228,835 as against £275,463 and £87,335. Articles of food and drink accounted for £539,689, machinery for £226,317, other metals and metal manufactures for £240,785, and textile goods for £630,575. In 1911 goods valued at £1,690,233 came from the British Empire, as against £520,994 from all foreign countries. Of these Germany took first place with £155,318, and the United States ran her close with £146,673. Only Sweden, France and Belgium of other countries sent large quantities of goods, and in nearly all the cases of foreign importations the articles were either those in which the United Kingdom does not compete, or in which the foreign articles compete successfully in the United Kingdom itself with British goods. As has been seen above, the proportions of British goods are markedly higher than in the case of the Union of South Africa, and the fact no doubt stands in close relation with the fact that even in 1911 over forty per cent. of the population was born in the United Kingdom. Of other British possessions Ceylon, Australia, and New Zealand have a substantial trade.

Exports. The total exports of Southern Rhodesia in 1911 were valued at £2,860,762, as compared with £2,802,037 in the previous year, and £2,319,250 in 1907. There were also re-exports of imported goods to the value of £225,578 as compared with £148,070 and £68,360, and exports of specie valued at £22,060 as against £57,992 and £74,733. The main articles of export were gold, £2,554,077, an increase

of £12,636 on the previous year, chrome iron ore, £118,064, an increase of nearly £17,500, and tobacco, £34,810, an increase of £3,202. There was also a large export of maize, valued at £16,878, of maize meal valued at £5,620, and of hides and skins valued at £12,361. CH. XI.
—♦—

The destination of the merchandise exported was overwhelmingly to the United Kingdom, a total of £2,619,820 being sent there, as against £138,025 to all foreign countries. Of these the Belgian Congo took £20,163, France, £51,644, and the United States £42,800, Germany being credited with only £4,764.

Southern Rhodesia was a member of the South African Customs. Customs Union, and now is working under an arrangement based on it as described above¹. It accords a preference to Great Britain, Canada, and Australasia. The currency is that of the Union, viz. British gold as unlimited legal tender, silver tender to the value of forty shillings, and bronze to the value of twelve pence, and Transvaal gold coinage under Act No. 14 of 1891. Currency.

The mainstay of Southern Rhodesia is of course the gold industry. The mines were rediscovered in 1864, and from 1898 to 1911 a total of £19,671,411 was extracted. In 1912 the total value of the gold produced was £2,707,369, extracted from 1,538,038 tons of quartz; the amount was 642,807 oz. and the yield 35 shillings a ton. In 1911, 628,521 oz. valued at £2,647,896 were obtained from 1,605,885 tons giving 33 shillings a ton. In the previous year 609,955 oz. were extracted from 1,669,874 tons crushed, yielding £2,568,198 or 30.76 shillings a ton. Traces of old workings² are found nearly all over the country, and at first prospectors wasted some time in endeavouring to find fresh gold in situations where the gold had already been Gold.

¹ See p. 55.

² The origin of the first workers is disputed, their Semitic character being now asserted, now denied; some writers have seen Rhodesia in the Ophir of the Bible.

PART III. more or less worked out. As a rule these workings were shallow, the operations ceasing when water was met with, which was generally at about forty to a hundred feet below the surface. The circumstances of mining in Rhodesia are favourable to miners working for themselves: on the Witwatersrand an enormous expenditure is necessary for development before any paying gold can be obtained; two or three men with a small capital in Rhodesia, working on claims of their own or as tributers, may do well on a quartz reef where elaborate preparations would not be rewarded. The chief fields in Matabeleland from south-west to north-east are the Gwanda, including the Antelope Belt about sixty miles from Bulawayo, the Balla Balla, and other fields between Bulawayo and Victoria, the Bulawayo fields near that town at an altitude of some 5,000 feet, the Gwelo, 110 miles north-east of Bulawayo, the Sebakwe and several others lying in fertile forest land to the north of Gwelo township. In Mashonaland the chief mines are the Hartley group, about 64 miles south-west of Salisbury, and not far north of the Matabeleland-Mashonaland boundary; the Lo Magundi, about 60 to 80 miles north-west of Salisbury at an altitude of 3,000 feet; the Victoria at an altitude of 3,800 feet, where development is hampered by difficulties of communication; the Felixburg, 50 miles from Enkeldoorn in the Victoria district; the Mazoe, including the Shamva and Mount Darwin; and the Manicaland. This field is 150 miles south-east of Salisbury, and 222 miles north-west of Beira. The reefs run across the boundary into Portuguese territory, and the richest reefs are in the Penhalonga Mountains which rise to a height of from 4,000 to 5,000 feet, and are rich in other minerals.

Coal.

There are certainly considerable quantities of coal, iron, and copper in Southern Rhodesia. Thick seams of coal have been found on either side of the Zambesi River, and on the right bank the coal-bearing strata advance to a distance of

from 100 to 150 miles to the south of the river. Outcrops occur near the Khami, Gwaai, Oumay, Sanyati Rivers, and elsewhere. The nearest field to Bulawayo is that near the Umzingwani River, at a point near Tuli, 140 miles east of Tati and 75 miles south-east of Gwanda, but the chief source of supply is the Wankie Coalfields, some 200 miles north-west of Bulawayo. There are two seams, of which the lower and better grade, six feet in thickness, is said to have been traced for eight miles, while the upper and inferior seam varies in thickness from 5 to 29 feet, and is said to yield better coal than the average South African product. As a result of the completion of the railway to the Victoria Falls there has been a rapid increase of output, and considerable quantities are used by the railways. There are also large deposits at Sengwe. The total output for 1906 was 103,803 tons, and the amount produced has steadily risen to 212,529 tons in 1911, and 216,140 tons in 1912. Iron ore is found *Iron.* in the main in the Selukwe district, the output up to 1906 was only a total of 3,400 tons; since that date the output has grown to 52,363 tons in 1911 and 69,260 tons in 1912, and iron chrome ore figures as has been seen among the exports, by far the largest proportion of the world's supply in 1912 of this valuable mineral being derived from Rhodesia. Copper exists in the Victoria district, and in certain other *Copper.* parts near the Zambesi. Silver, as a by-product from gold *Silver.* ore, in 1910 was mainly obtained from the Penhalonga mines, totalling 217,633 oz., in 1911 187,640, and in 1912 176,532; and the same mines yielded all the lead produced in 1912, viz. 588 tons valued at £9,253. A considerable quantity of asbestos is also found.

The main difficulty in the case of Southern Rhodesia as *Native* elsewhere is the question of the supply of native labour. In *Labour.* addition to the territory itself labourers can be imported from Northern Rhodesia, as well as from Portuguese territory, and until 1911 they could be imported from Nyasaland. The

PART III. business of recruiting natives is in the hands of an association in close connexion with the Government and, under Ordinance No. 16 of 1911¹, the compounds are inspected by Government officers and medical officers, and much is done to improve the conditions of employment and make the work sufficiently attractive to secure a good supply of labour. In 1912 there were signs of improved recruiting, the natives being ready to serve for longer periods.

Agricultural and Pastoral Pursuits.

The mining industries afford valuable support for the more fundamental development of the country into an agricultural and pastoral community, for which it is well fitted. The country includes wide undulating plains, clothed in long grass, but comparatively bare of trees, broken ranges of hill and kopjes well wooded, and open plains alternating with woodland, and so offers considerable variety of circumstance. A great part of the country consists of elevated plateaux, 3,500 to 5,000 feet above the sea-level, of which the watershed and the upper plains are specially suited for European settlement. Nearly 100,000 square miles out of the 148,575 given as the area are said to be above the 3,000 feet limit, and 26,000 square miles, an area not much less than that of Scotland, are above the 4,000 feet limit, and present a climate in which European children can flourish. Even after making allowances for land necessary for native reserves, some 50,000 square miles are said to be fully suitable for European settlement. Moreover for pasture purposes the land has special value in the fact of its copious supply of water, most of the streams other than those flowing from the Matabeleland country to the Zambesi being perennial. The census of 1911

¹ Ordinance No. 13 of 1911, which provided for a labour tax levied on all employers, and payable to the Rhodesian Native Labour Association, was the source of energetic protests from the farmers. Passive resistance was offered, and though the constitutionality of the law was upheld by the Courts (see above, p. 254, n. 1), the British South Africa Company asked for its disallowance by the Secretary of State, who acted on their request; the Government gives a subsidy to the association; see Report, 1911-12, p. 30.

showed cattle, 463,923; sheep, 292,372; and goats, 601,635. CH. XI.
 The percentages of increase since 1904 were all satisfactory; ———
 cattle had increased by 264 per cent., sheep by 149, goats
 by 81, and horses and donkeys by 57 per cent., and the
 increases of native stock were also marked. The disease of
 horse sickness was, however, serious, the annual death rates
 of horses and mules from this cause being 18 and 8 per cent.
 respectively, and east coast fever was responsible for twenty
 per cent. of the mortality among cattle.

The staple crop of the country is maize, of which there is *Maize and*
 a substantial export; tobacco is also profitably grown, the *other*
 production having increased from 132,310 lb. in 1910-11 to *Crops.*
 1,397,000 in 1912-13, while linseed, ground nuts, Kaffir corn
 and Mauritius hemp promise well. Wheat, oats, and barley
 can be grown successfully as winter crops without irrigation
 on naturally moist soils, and also as late summer crops
 maturing after the rains. Coffee flourishes at Melsetter.
 Dairying has been extended, and better milk and butter pro-
 duced. Among native crops are rice, a kind of millet called
 poku, india-rubber and cotton, while the production of
 oranges and lemons promises to become of importance,
 the climate of the Mazoe valley and elsewhere being admira-
 bly suited for the raising of citrus fruits.

The Government aid agriculture both directly, by a liberal *Govern-*
 system of land grants, and by various indirect means. *ment Aid to*
 The latter include the granting of aid to the farmers for fencing *Agriculture.*
 land and building dipping tanks, the provision of loans
 through an Agricultural Bank, the farming by the Company
 of 650,000 acres, including a stock farm of 500,000 acres at
 Rhodesdale, tobacco land at Marandellas and citrus estates,
 and the activity of the agricultural department in entomo-
 logical research, in experiments for the production of suitable
 seed, which have resulted in the discovery of a rust-resisting
 variety of wheat which can be grown in Rhodesia in the
 rainy season, and so forth. An Agricultural College is being

PART III. constructed at Salisbury. Up to 1912 land was sold cheaply on a quit-rent tenure, with a nominal rent of £1 a thousand acres, about three shillings an acre, including the cost of survey, being the price. If not bought, land might be occupied under permit with an option of purchase. Pastoral leases up to 15,000 morgen, and grants up to 3,000 morgen are also issued. Despite large alienations, amounting to nearly one and a half million acres a year in recent years, at the close of 1911 it was estimated that forty-eight million acres remained available for settlement. It was stated in the Report for 1911-12 that the rise in values had necessitated the reconsideration of the policy of the Government, and that in future the principle of valuation would be applied to all sites. In 1913 a grant of 1,200,000 acres for stock-raising was made to the Liebig Company at 1s. an acre.

*The
Railways.*

The most important means of communication are afforded by the railways. The railways are now in the hands of the Rhodesia Railways, Limited, which owns the Vryburg-Bulawayo, the Bulawayo-Kalomo, and the Bulawayo-Salisbury sections, and the Mashonaland Railway Company, Limited, which owns the Salisbury-Beira line and the Kalomo-Broken Hill section.¹ Railway advance in Rhodesia owed its origin, like all else, to Mr. Rhodes. In 1890 he agreed with the Cape Government for the construction of a line to cover the 127 miles from Kimberley to Vryburg, and in 1897 Bulawayo was reached from Vryburg. At the same time two companies founded under the auspices of the British South Africa Company built a line from Beira to Umtali, the most eastern town in Southern Rhodesia, the Anglo-Portuguese treaty of 1891 having stipulated that Portugal should construct this line to afford communication with the sea. From Umtali to Salisbury the railway was carried on

¹ In both these Companies the Rhodesia Railways Trust, Limited, is interested, and it has acquired the debts owed by them to the British South Africa Company.

the broad gauge, and not on the narrow gauge of the Beira-Umtali line, in 1899 by the Mashonaland Company, which next undertook the widening of the gauge of the section to Beira, and from August, 1900, became sole manager of the line from Salisbury to Beira. There remained a gap of 301 miles between Salisbury and Bulawayo, but this was bridged via Gwelo in 1902 by the Rhodesia Company. The same Company dealt with the extension north, and on April 25, 1904 the Victoria Falls were reached, a distance of 280 miles from Bulawayo, the line opening up the huge Wankie Coalfield. A bridge was built by the Company across the Zambesi below the falls and the line continued to Kalomo, where the Mashonaland Company intervened and carried it on to Broken Hill, 2,016 miles north of Cape Town.

Meanwhile other minor lines had been built to serve as *Main* feeders to the main lines and to open up districts adjacent *Lines* to the railway. One on the 2-feet gauge ran from Salisbury to the Ayrshire Mine in the Lo Magundi district, a distance of 84 miles. The line built by the Ayrshire Company was taken over by the Mashonaland Company, and a further branch 14 miles to the Eldorado Mine was opened in July, 1906. This branch is now being widened to the standard gauge by the Company. In 1903 a branch line of 23 miles connected Selukwe with Gwelo, to open up the gold-mining district, and the southern goldfields of Matabeleland were a few months later opened by a line starting from a junction seventeen miles from Bulawayo. From another junction on the south-west of Bulawayo a branch was run to the Matopo Hills. In 1908 the Blinkwater Railway Company commenced a line which runs from Lyndhurst Junction past Iron Mine Hill to Umvuna, a distance of 50 miles, and an extension to Victoria will eventually be carried out. The same company has built a line from the 13 mile post on the line from Salisbury to Lo Magundi which passes the Jumbo Mine and

PART III. extends to the Shamva Mine. Further railway development is under consideration, including a line from Umtali to Melsetter, and connexion from a point 14 miles east of Salisbury with the Enterprise District, while the South African Railways by the construction of a line from Zeerust to Mafeking have brought Bulawayo 250 miles nearer Johannesburg. This line will increase trade with Bechuanaland and the Transvaal.

*Railway
Earnings.*

The railways earn large sums, the Mashonaland and the Rhodesia Companies receipts in 1910 being £1,356.289 gross, and £700,962 net, in 1911 £1,736.670 and £958,406, and in 1912 £1,654,376 and £825.940 respectively. The cost of construction for 1,398 miles open on January 1, 1910 was estimated at about £5,000 a mile. Large reductions in rates have been made of late to lessen the price of necessities and facilitate the transport of Rhodesian products.

Postal.

The Postal and Telegraphs Department had a total revenue of £103,436 in 1912, and an expenditure of £85,081. The Government in 1912-13 decided to extend the telephone service on the Canadian system to give increased facilities to small farmers. Southern Rhodesia is a member of the Universal Postal Union, and shares in the British penny postage, but with the $\frac{1}{2}$ -oz. limit. It has reduced rates for the rest of British South Africa.

Timber.

Timber in Southern Rhodesia is in the main of comparatively little value for commercial purposes. On the other hand, the trees serve to maintain the rainfall and to prevent the drifting of sand, and thus in all probability perform important functions. The most valuable indigenous trees are the mashuma, *Diospyrus mashuma*, which is hard and durable, with an edible fruit; the wood is used for wagon-building and mining work and general purposes. The timber of the mopani, *Copaifera mopani*, is hard, durable, and ant-proof, and therefore valuable. The wild wistaria, *Bolusanthus speciosus*, a small tree, yields timber proof against

the ant and borer, and therefore used for fencing posts. The redwood, *Baikiaea plurijuga*, or native teak, gives a hard red ant-proof timber, and is found over a large area to the north and north-west of Bulawayo and away to the Zambesi. The native name is *i'kusi*. The *um tshibi*, also known as mahogany, resembles *i'kusi*, but the wood is darker and harder, and the tree is not very common. Yellow-wood, *Terminalia sericea*, gives a soft straight-grained wood, which hardens after cutting and which is ant-proof. The knobby thorn, *Acacia nigrescens*, a very handsome tree, gives rough durable and ant-proof timber, and is of value for mining purposes.

Experiments show that in addition to these native trees the mlanje cedar, the Canary Island pine, the cypress, the eucalypti, the wattle, and other trees will easily grow. The great danger of all Rhodesian forests is frequent fires and the tendency of the natives to make wasteful use of the trees by burning them and the bushes as a means of enriching the soil. Encouragement is given by the Company to the growth of trees, and the matter is receiving full consideration, as its importance to South Africa deserves.

As in all tropical countries the opening up of the land has *Health.* cost much in health. Malaria is the chief enemy of civilization. As late as 1907 the number of admissions to hospital for this cause was 44.1 per 1,000 of the population; by 1911 the proportion fell to 34.3. Remedial measures on a large scale are hardly needed or possible; but the disease must be more or less prevalent, so long as the pioneers in mining or farming areas have more important things to consider than personal health. Blackwater fever in 1911 still claimed 19 deaths, and out of 39 European cases treated in the hospitals 17.95 per cent. died. These figures were, however, very much less than in 1910. Among the natives small-pox is diminishing as the result of vaccination, and the tribes on the Portuguese frontier have been thus

PART III. protected against the disease. Steps are being taken to erect a leper hospital for the care of those so afflicted. On the mines the death-rate fell from 49.28 per thousand in 1910 to 32.95 in 1911, but rose to 35.83 in 1912, 4.72 being due to accident. The most fatal disease is pneumonia, against which experiments are being made with a vaccine. Phthisis is little known except among workers in the mines; with the native its course is very rapid and fatal. Sleeping sickness is as yet almost unknown except in imported cases, but the Selungwe, Hartley, and Lo Magundi districts contain the *Glossina morsitans*, and until 1911 efforts were made to prevent the entry into Southern Rhodesia of any person infected with trypanosomes, by forbidding the entrance of natives from the Luangwa Valley. This policy has been abandoned, but all natives recruited in the valley are placed under observation at a central station for a period of a fortnight.

*The
Victoria
Falls.*

No treatment of Southern Rhodesia would be complete which did not refer to the natural beauties of the Victoria Falls, and the archaeological importance of the ruins of Great Zimbabwe. The falls were discovered by Livingstone in 1855, and access has been rendered easy by the railway which crosses the Zambesi below the falls by a bridge, opened in June, 1904, which is one of the highest in the world and is 650 feet long and 350 feet above low-water level. The main peculiarity of the falls is that the country above and below is about the same level, the waters disappearing into a great fissure or cañon, whose precipitous sides are at right angles to the course of the river. The cleft in the plain is sometimes less than 400 feet wide and is over 350 feet deep. The width of the stream at the falls is about a mile, but the distance is broken by islands and rocks so that the edge appears more curved than is actually the case. In some cases the fall is precipitous, in others the water is caught by projecting rocks and reaches the stream in a series of cascades. The

fall nearest the south bank, the Leaping Water or Devil's Cataract, is 90 feet wide and 260 feet deep; the main falls are between Cataract Island and Livingstone Island, divided into two sections 573 and 325 yards broad respectively, by a rock; beyond Livingstone Island are the Rainbow Falls, 600 yards across. Their name is due to the rainbow effects produced by the vast quantities of spray from the falls. Below the falls the river winds in a series of cañons, which measured along their zigzags extend for over 40 miles.

The horse-power available at the falls has been estimated at from 300,000 to 600,000, depending on the rainfall, and the obvious possibility of its use for giving power at the Rand has been considered. The distance is 556 miles in a direct line, and by any normal route about 745 miles long. The cost of horse-power at the Rand under present conditions has been put at £30, and the cost of horse-power at Buffalo, 30 miles from Niagara, is about £25 11s. per annum, so that the problem of the carriage of the electricity presents formidable problems which have not yet been solved.

*Possible
use of the
Falls.*

The ruins of Great Zimbabwe lie at a distance of about 17 miles from Victoria, which is 80 miles from Umvuna on the Blinkwater line. They were rediscovered by Mr. S. A. Phillips in 1867, and examined minutely in 1891 by Mr. Theodore Bent and Mr. R. M. W. Swan. Since then they have attracted much attention, and have been elaborately discussed by Messrs. Hall and Neal in the *Ancient Ruins of Rhodesia*. The ruins apparently were at one time a town or fort for the protection of smelters of ore, whose crucibles have been found in the area of about 2 by $1\frac{1}{4}$ miles, which seems to have been within the walls. The main wall appears to have been 30 feet in height in parts, 10 feet in width at the foot, and 7 feet at the top. Among the ruins have been found statuettes in hawk shape, bowls, baskets, and other articles, which have been interpreted by some authorities as signs of early Semitic influence of pre-Mahomedan date, a view

*Great
Zimbabwe.*

PART III. which others have decisively rejected, ascribing the ruins to a much later date.¹

Position
of the
Company.

Despite the fact that of recent years the administration of the Company in Rhodesia has not been carried on at a loss, the British South Africa Company has never paid any dividend. The question accordingly of the future relations of the Company and the settlers has of late presented itself with increasing importance. In 1907 the Directors visited Rhodesia and put forward a set of proposals, which suggested a distinction between the administrative expenditure of the Government and administrative revenue on the one hand and commercial expenditure and revenue on the other, with a view to the gradual assumption of the administration by the settlers. It was proposed that the administrative revenue should not include payments made to the Company for railways, quit-rents, lease-rents, and site-rents. But some of the settlers held that the claim of the Company to be commercial owner of the land was an unfounded claim, and that the Company was merely a trustee of the land for administrative purposes. Proposals by the elected members of the Legislative Council in 1908 that the Secretary of State should inquire into and settle the question were rejected in 1909 by Lord Crewe, and since that date the matter has not advanced further and still remains in dispute. It is closely connected with the general question of constitutional reform which has been mooted, a proposal having been brought forward by a member of the Legislative Council in 1912 for the establishment of a representative form of government on the basis of that adopted by the Letters Patent of March 31, 1905, which were to have established representative government in the Transvaal. It was suggested that the legislature should consist of five nominees and from fifteen to twenty elected members, and that the executive should consist of the nominee members,

¹ See Venning, *Journal of the African Society*, vii. 150-8; Randall-Maciver, *Mediaeval Rhodesia*, London, 1906.

the Governor who made the nominations being under the direct control of the Secretary of State for the Colonies. But this scheme has not found wide favour in Rhodesia. On the other hand, responsible government is held by many to be premature with a population well under 30,000 and nearly three-quarters of a million natives to rule, and there would presumably be no possibility of the Company consenting to the grant of responsible government, unless the country accepted liability for some at least of the expenditure of the Company, which includes over two and a half million pounds expended on war purposes, and much expenditure on administration, for which no direct return has so far been received. In 1913 further control of legislation was conceded by the Company to the settlers, and they also agreed to credit the Administration with half the quit-rents and to pay for administrative services rendered to the commercial branches of the Company's activities.

The most obvious way of solving the problem is, of course, that suggested by the treatment of Rhodesia in the South Africa Act. The framers of the Union early realized that Rhodesia could not form part of the Union at the outset, and the Act of Union accordingly permits the admission of Rhodesia hereafter on terms to be settled at the time. In due course, therefore, it may be considered by South African statesmen advisable to purchase the rights of the Company as regards administration on such terms as are deemed equitable: for this there is a precedent in the case of the purchase by Canada of the administrative rights of the Hudson Bay Company, while leaving the trading rights untouched. The land question might also be settled by a payment to the Company in lieu of its claim to the private ownership of land and minerals: it may be remembered that the union of Prince Edward Island with Canada was secured by the Dominion advancing the money to buy out the landholders who then owned the land of the Island and effectively precluded pro-

PART III. gress. There would be, too, this advantage, that the full
—♦— measure of responsibility for the government of the country would not be thrown on the small white minority in Southern Rhodesia alone, which would only be entrusted, it may be presumed, with such local matters as are now assigned to the Provinces of the Union, leaving the Union to face the native question and the other difficulties of the future. But all this is matter of speculation: at present the settlers in Rhodesia are, it seems, not anxious for union, and the amendment of the Constitution effected by the Order in Council of 1911 as altered in 1913, which gives the elected members a majority on the Council, though they cannot deal with finance save on the motion of the Administrator, or affect the private rights of the Company without his permission, accords them the full control of the legislation of the territory, and further enables them to exercise increasing weight as regards the financial position of the Government. The growth of wealth, and the passing of time may afford new methods of solution of the problem.¹

¹ Abundant information regarding Southern Rhodesia is contained in the Annual Reports of the British South Africa Company; in the Reports laid before the Legislative Council annually; and in the Proceedings of the Rhodesia Scientific Association.

CHAPTER XII

NORTHERN RHODESIA

§ 1. THE BOUNDARIES AND CONSTITUTION

THE territory of Northern Rhodesia represents in area CH. XII.
by far the larger portion of the lands under the administration
of the British South Africa Company ; but whatever may be *The Two*
its prospects of development, its importance lies in the future, *Parts of*
and any account of it must be a record of potentialities *the Terri-*
rather than of accomplishment. In its earlier years of *tory.*
existence the territory now known by this name was divided
into two distinct parts, North-Eastern Rhodesia and North-
Western Rhodesia, and until a couple of years before the
amalgamation of the Administrations in 1911, the control
of the territory which was retained by the Secretary of State
for the Colonies was exercised through the High Commis-
sioner for South Africa in the case of the western portion,
but through the Commissioner of British Central Africa, now
styled Nyasaland, for the eastern portion. In virtue, how-
ever, of an Order in Council of October 18, 1909, the whole
of Northern Rhodesia was freed from its subjection to the
administration of Nyasaland, and has thrown in its lot
definitely with the British South African possessions in South
Africa, though from them it differs in the possession of the
English system of law in place of the Roman-Dutch system
which is the rule even in Southern Rhodesia. From South-
ern Rhodesia it differs also in the absence of any legislature
of its own : laws are made for it by the High Commissioner
for South Africa, and the administration is conducted rather
on the lines of the administration of native territories directly
under the Crown than on that of Southern Rhodesia, though

PART III. naturally the system in force in the southern territory forms the model towards which the northern will eventually attain.

—♦—
*The
Origin of
Northern
Rhodesia.*

The principal field of the operations of the British South Africa Company was defined by the Charter of October 29, 1889, as being the territory immediately to the north of British Bechuanaland, to the north and west of the South African Republic, and to the west of the Portuguese dominions. On February 13, 1891, the Company approached the Government with an intimation of its desire to extend the field of its operations to the north of the Zambesi, and asked that Mr. H. H. Johnston, who had been appointed H. M. Commissioner and Consul-General in Nyasaland, should be appointed political administrator of the Company's sphere north of the Zambesi. This application was conceded on terms finally settled on April 2, 1891. The Company were granted powers of administration and government over the territories north of the Zambesi and south of the Congo Free State and the German sphere, which were subject to British influence; but until January 1, 1894, these powers were to be exercised by H. M. Commissioner for Nyasaland in consultation with the Company, and in this respect the Company's officers were to be subjected to the Commissioner. The Company was to raise, equip, and maintain a police force, and defray all expenses connected with its employment, expending not less than £10,000 a year. The other expenses of administration were to be borne by the Company, and their previous sanction was required before any expenditure was incurred. On November 24, 1894, a supplementary agreement was made under which the Company assumed the direct administration of the territories north of the Zambesi with effect from June 30, 1895, and the treaties made on their behalf in the territories in question were recognized by the Imperial Government so far as they did not conflict with the provision against a monopoly in the original Charter of the Company, and with the stipulations of the Act of

Berlin in so far as these stipulations applied to that territory. CH. XII.
 Arrangements were made as to mining rights acquired by —+—
 the Company from the African Lakes Company, and the
 Company were required to guard the German border between
 Nyasa and Tanganyika from aggression by natives, and to
 submit to the approval of the Secretary of State customs
 arrangements between the Protectorate and the chartered
 territory which experience might prove to be desirable to
 adopt for the purposes of the execution of the Berlin and
 Brussels Acts.

The boundaries of the territories thus placed under the administration of the Company were defined by Orders in Council of November 28, 1899, and January 29, 1900. The former Order defined the limits of the north-western part of the territories, styled Barotziland¹—North-Western Rhodesia, as the parts of Africa bounded by the River Zambesi, the German South-West Africa Protectorate, the Portuguese Possessions, the Congo Free State, and the Kakukwe or Loengi River, and including so much of the territory belonging to the Bashukolumbia tribe as might lie east of that river. North-Eastern Rhodesia was defined to be the parts of Africa bounded on the west by the territories of the Congo Free State and of Barotziland—North-Western Rhodesia, on the south by the Kakukwe River, and the river Zambesi down to its junction with the Luangwa River, thence by the mid-channel of the Luangwa River northwards, to where it is cut by the fifteenth degree of south latitude, and from this point by the Anglo-Portuguese boundary eastwards to the frontier of the British Central Africa Protectorate (Nyasa-land): on the east by that frontier, on the north by the Anglo-German frontier, the south shore of Lake Tanganyika, and the southern frontier of the Congo Free State as far west as Lake Mweru, including the island of Kilwa in the British sphere. These boundaries were, however, somewhat altered

The Boundaries.

¹ This is the official spelling; the other, however, is normally used.

PART III. by direction of the Secretary of State, notified in Northern Rhodesia on September 29, 1905. By that direction the territory bounded on the north by the Congo Free State, on the west by North-Western Rhodesia, on the south by the Zambesi, and on the east by a line drawn from a point where the Congo-Zambesi water-shed is cut by the meridian which passes through the point at which the Luapula River leaves Lake Bangweolo to the head-quarters of the river Mlembo, thence along the centre of the channel of that river to its junction with the river Lukasashi, thence along the channel of that river to its junction with the river Luangwa, and thence along that river to its junction with the Zambesi was detached from North-Eastern Rhodesia and added to North-Western Rhodesia.

*International
Boundaries.*

The international boundaries of Northern Rhodesia are dependent on treaties with the Congo, Germany and Portugal. On the south-west it is bounded by the strip of German South-West Africa, which gives Germany access to the Zambesi. The line between Tanganyika and Lake Nyasa which divides German and British territory was defined roughly in Article I of the Anglo-German agreement of July 1, 1890. A delimitation took place between German and British Commissioners in 1898, and a final agreement was arrived at on February 23, 1901. The boundary so demarked begins at the mouth of the Songwe River at Lake Nyasa, and follows it to its junction with the Katendo stream in the Shitete district. Thence it proceeds to the intersection of that stream with 33° east longitude, thence to the top of Nakungulu Hill which marks the water-parting of the geographical Congo basin. Thence it proceeds via the Mpemba stream, the Kumbi Hill, passing about three kilometres north of the station at Fife, between the old and new Stevenson roads, above the villages of Nombwe and Kissitu, and the Ikomba and Mambwe stations to the junction of the Massiete and Masia streams. Thence it proceeds south of

the Ipundu village to the junction of the Saissi River with the Kassokorwa, thence up the Saissi to its junction with the Rumi, then up the Rumi to its junction with the Mkumbaw, and then up the Mkumbaw to its source. Thence it proceeds to the south-east source of the Samfu stream, down which it goes to the Kalombo and thence into Lake Tanganyika.

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The boundary with Germany does not, however, give the precise area allotted to Rhodesia, as under the agreement of February-April, 1891, by which the Company was allowed to extend its operations north of the Zambesi, the territory of Nyasaland was excluded, the boundary of Nyasaland being defined, in so far as it bordered on the territory assigned to the Company, by a line commencing at the place where the boundary of the conventional line of the Berlin Act of 1885 cut the Portuguese and British boundary on the south, following that line to the point of intersection with the geographical line of the Congo basin, and then following this last line to its point of intersection with the boundary between the British and German spheres. Nyasaland thus includes the territory round the whole of the British portion of Lake Nyasa and the Nyasaland Protectorate intervenes between Northern Rhodesia and the lake.

The Boundary with Nyasaland.

The boundary between Portuguese territory on the east and both Nyasaland and Northern Rhodesia is defined by Article I of the treaty with Portugal of 1891. The boundary with Northern Rhodesia starts at the point where the watershed between Lake Nyasa and the Zambesi meets parallel 14 of south latitude, whence it runs in a south-westerly direction to the point where the Luangwa River meets 15 south latitude, following thereafter the Luangwa to its junction with the Zambesi. This portion of the boundary was delimited and marked on the ground in 1904, and was defined in procès-verbaux signed by the Commissioners on November 21, 1904. This provisional agreement was confirmed by an exchange of notes dated October 20 and

The Eastern Boundary with Portugal.

PART III. November 20, 1911. The boundary as thus marked out
 —♦♦— runs up the Luangwa to the west of the island of Niakatenga, to the 15th parallel. Then it proceeds past Nyesi Hill, Chikongoro Hill, the Nyamiseje Hill, crosses the new road from Tete to Fort Jameson, passes the Papi Hill and the Kalembe Hill, crosses the Mizu plateau, and cuts the 14th parallel of south latitude at $33^{\circ} 14' 32''$ east longitude.

The Boundary with the Congo.

The north-western boundary with the Congo rests upon the treaty of May 12, 1894. Under that treaty the line starts from a point at the south-western end of Lake Tanganyika, in about $8^{\circ} 15'$ south latitude, and runs nearly due west to the point at which the river Luapula, one of the headstreams of the Congo River, flows in a north-westerly course from Lake Mweru. Thence it runs down the lake, being deflected to include the island of Kilwa in the British sphere to the point where the same river enters the lake at the southern end. From this point it follows the windings of the Luapula to the point where that river emerges from Lake Bangweolo, and thence runs due south to the watershed between the Congo and the Zambesi. Finally it follows that watershed in a westerly direction up to the Portuguese boundary. The line has been under delimitation since September, 1911.

The Western Boundary with Portugal.

The agreement between Great Britain and Portugal of June 11, 1891, fixed as the boundary between the British and the Portuguese sphere of influence in Central Africa, the centre of the channel of the Upper Zambesi, starting from the Katima rapids to the point where it reaches the territory of the Barotse territory. As it was impossible to arrive at an agreement as to the exact boundary of the Barotse kingdom, the matter was referred for decision to the King of Italy, who delivered his award in June, 1905. The King in his decision based his acceptance of the Barotse sovereignty on marks of recognition of the paramountcy of King Lewanika, shown in his appointing, investing,

deposing or settling disputes between the lesser chiefs. He decided therefore that the Bampukush, the Bamarshi, the Mambunda, and the Bamakoma were absolutely independent tribes, but that Lewanika had exercised jurisdiction over the Province of Nalolo, to the west of the Zambesi, and over the tribes of the Mabuenyi, and the Maboe: he found that the Balovale had not been subdued by the Barotse until 1892, but that Lewanika exercised some rights of lordship over the strip of land between the Zambesi and the Lungubungu, inhabited by the Balovale, so that this zone formed an integral part of the Barotse kingdom. He decided also that the territory comprised between the lower course of the Labombo, the Zambesi and the 13th parallel must be considered as part of the kingdom, and that an exact delimitation of the area was impossible, owing to the absence of geographical features or to imperfect knowledge, or to the shifting character of the tribes and their intermingling. His award accordingly fixed a conventional boundary, starting from the Katima rapids and proceeding, by a straight line to the village of Andara on the Okovango, as far as the point where the line meets the river Kwando. Then the boundary was to follow the eastern side of the bed of the upper water of the Kwando as far as the point of intersection with the 22nd meridian east, then along the 22nd meridian to its point of intersection with the 13th parallel, then along that parallel to the point of intersection with the 24th meridian, and then along that meridian to the frontier of the Congo. The actual delimitation of this boundary is now being undertaken.

By the Order in Council of May 4, 1911, provision is made for the amalgamation into one Protectorate of North-Eastern Rhodesia and Barotziland—Northern and Western Rhodesia, under the control of the High Commissioner, who is also Governor-General of the Union of South Africa.

The territory included in the Order in Council is the land bounded by Southern Rhodesia, German South-West Africa,

CH. XII.

*Order in
Council of
1911 for
Adminis-
tration and
Govern-
ment.*

*Limits of
the Order.*

PART III. Portuguese West Africa, the Congo Free State, German East Africa, Nyasaland and Portuguese East Africa. But the Secretary of State may from time to time exempt any parts of the territories now included from the application of the Order in Council.

*Powers of
the Com-
pany.*

Within the territories in question the British South Africa Company may exercise the general administration of affairs in accordance with the terms of their charter and the supplementary powers granted by the new Order in Council.

*Appoint-
ment of
Officers.*

The control of the Company will be exercised through an Administrator and other officers appointed by the Company, including Judges, Magistrates, Assistant Magistrates, Native Commissioners and Assistant Native Commissioners, but in every case it shall be within the power of the Secretary of State to disapprove of any particular appointment. Moreover the High Commissioner has power to suspend a Judge, or Magistrate, or other official, from office for misconduct after giving him an opportunity of defending himself, and the Secretary of State may confirm such suspension, or he may inflict any less punishment, such as deduction of salary, loss of seniority, and so forth. In addition to this control over the officials of the Company, the Secretary of State may appoint a Resident Commissioner who shall be paid from Imperial funds, and who shall have the right to receive from the Administrator all such information having regard to the administration of affairs or the officers of the Company as the Resident Commissioner may require. In particular the Resident Commissioner is required to report upon every draft Proclamation submitted to him by the Administrator, upon all proposed appointments, and he is called upon to keep the High Commissioner fully informed upon all matters arising within the territories included in the Order. The post of Resident Commissioner may be held and is now held by the Resident Commissioner of Southern Rhodesia, but in that case he may appoint a Deputy to act for him with such

*Resident
Commis-
sioner.*

powers and duties as may be approved by the High Commissioner.¹

CH. XII.

The Administrator is also to some extent made an officer subject to the control of the Secretary of State, for not only can he not be appointed without his approval, but the amount of his salary requires the Secretary of State's sanction and it cannot be increased or diminished without his approval. The Administrator may be removed or suspended by the Secretary of State, but the Company cannot remove him without the permission of the Secretary of State. He holds office for three years, and may be reappointed with the Secretary of State's approval. If the post is left vacant for six months by the Company the Secretary of State may appoint, but during the vacancy of the office for any reason the Senior Judge may act.

The Administrator.

In his administration, the Administrator may, if the Company by resolution of the Board of Directors declare that it is expedient, be assisted by a Council comprising the Resident Commissioner and the Senior Judge *ex officio*, and not less than three other members appointed by the Company with the approval of the Secretary of State.² Such members shall hold office for three years, but shall be eligible for reappointment. In all important matters the Administrator shall consult the Council, at the meetings of which he shall preside, having a casting vote if the voting is equal. Two members, exclusive of the Resident Commissioner, with the Administrator shall form a quorum. The Resident Commissioner, though entitled to be present and speak at any meeting, shall not be entitled to vote.

Executive Council.

The Administrator may act contrary to the advice tendered to him by his Council, but in any such case he shall report the matter forthwith to the Company, and the reasons of any member for his dissent shall, if he so require, be recorded and

Relations of Administrator and Council.

¹ This power has not been exercised.

² No such Council has yet been set up.

PART III. transmitted to the Company, but in any case the Company
—♦— may reverse any action of the Administrator whether in
accordance with the advice of his Council or against their
advice.

*Legisla-
tion.*

The legislative power is vested in the High Commissioner after consultation with the Administrator. It is plenary, but the High Commissioner shall wherever possible have regard to any suggestions or requests made to him in respect of his action by the British South Africa Company, and no Proclamation concerning the raising of revenue shall be made unless with the assent of the Company previously given thereto. Every Proclamation shall forthwith be sent to the Secretary of State, who may disallow it within a year of its taking effect either of his own motion or at the request of the Company.

In issuing a Proclamation the High Commissioner shall respect any native law or custom regulating the civil relations of any native Chiefs, tribes or populations under His Majesty's protection, save in so far as these laws may be incompatible with the due exercise of His Majesty's power and jurisdiction.

There are certain limitations also on the customs duties on goods imported into Northern Rhodesia, which must not exceed the amount included in the tariff in force in the South African Customs Union at the date of the coming into operation of the Southern Rhodesia Order in Council, 1898, or that included in the Customs Convention of May, 1898.

*Control of
Police.*

The High Commissioner also controls the Military Police Forces of the Protectorate, but not the Civil Police Force, but such Civil Force shall not undertake military operations unless declared by the High Commissioner to be employed on active service, in which event the force will be subject to such terms and regulations as the High Commissioner shall determine, and any Police Force shall be liable for service both in Northern and in Southern Rhodesia.

The Resident Commissioner was *ex officio* to be Commandant-General of the Police and Volunteer Forces and

to take the chief command of any Police and Volunteer Forces employed on active service, and to have the right to inspect at all times any Police or Volunteer Forces. These powers are, however, by an Order in Council of February 11, 1913, vested in the Commandant-General of Southern Rhodesia, an officer appointed by the Company. The appointment, promotion and dismissal of officers of the Volunteer and Police Forces shall be subject to the approval of the High Commissioner.

A High Court of Northern Rhodesia is created with full jurisdiction civil and criminal over all persons and matters within the Protectorate. Such jurisdiction shall be exercised in conformity with the substance of English law for the time being in force and according to English procedure so far as it is applicable. But no Act of Parliament passed subsequently to the commencement of the Order in Council shall be deemed to apply to Northern Rhodesia. The Judges shall be appointed by the Secretary of State on the nomination of the Company; shall hold office during good behaviour, and shall only be removed by the Secretary of State. Their salaries shall be fixed with the approval of the Secretary of State, and his approval is necessary for either increase or diminution.

In the case of sentence of death, the sentence shall not be carried into effect until confirmed by the High Commissioner, and the High Commissioner has full power to remit or commute any sentence whatever of the High Court.

In civil matters when the amount or value in dispute exceeds £500 sterling, an appeal shall lie from the High Court to the King in Council.

For minor cases there shall be Magistrates' Courts. Magistrates shall be appointed by the Administrator with the approval of the High Commissioner, and from these courts appeal shall lie to the High Court.

In civil cases between natives the High Court and Magistrates' Courts shall be guided by native law so far as it is not

CH. XII.

*High Court.**Death Sentences.**Appeals.**Magistrates' Courts.**Native Law.*

PART III. incompatible with natural justice or morality, or any Order in Council, or Proclamation made by the High Commissioner under the Order in Council. In any such cases the Court can obtain the assistance of one or two Native Assessors to advise it upon native law and customs, but the decision shall be given by the Judge or Magistrate alone. The Court is expressly authorized to recognize for civil purposes polygamous marriages so far as they are recognized by the native law or custom.

*Secretary
for Native
Affairs.*

The Company is authorized to appoint a Secretary for Native Affairs with the approval of the High Commissioner, but subject to confirmation by the Secretary of State; and also Native Commissioners or Assistant Native Commissioners, and the High Commissioner may confer upon any of these officers such jurisdiction as may seem to him to be expedient.

*Native
Rights.*

No disabilities shall be imposed upon natives by Proclamation which do not equally apply to other persons, except with regard to fire-arms, ammunition, liquor, or any other matter in which the Secretary of State has given previous authority.

*Native
Lands.*

The land interests of the natives are secured by requiring the Company to assign to them sufficient lands¹ for their occupation and suitable for agricultural and pastoral requirements, including a fair proportion of springs or permanent waters, and the Chief and the people of the Barotse are confirmed in the possession of the territory reserved to them in the concessions from Lewanika to the Company of 1909.

The Administrator shall deal with all questions respecting the settlement of natives on lands within Northern Rhodesia, but the High Commissioner may review such decisions. A native may acquire, hold, encumber and dispose of land on

¹ The Company claim the right in virtue of concessions from Lewanika of 1901 and 1909 to deal as owners with all the land of the territory except the Barotse country, but subject to the terms of the Order in Council.

the same conditions as a non-native, but any contract for encumbering or alienating land will only be valid if made in the presence of a Magistrate who shall certify that the consideration for the contract was fair and reasonable, and that the native understood the transaction. CH. XII.

The mineral rights in native lands are secured to the Company, and they are authorized to expropriate lands for mineral development, township sites, railways, or other public works, but only with the approval of the High Commissioner and on condition that just and liberal compensation elsewhere is accorded to the natives. No native shall be removed from any kraal or from any land assigned to him for occupation, except after full inquiry by the Administrator and with the consent of the High Commissioner. *Mineral Rights.*

The High Commissioner is empowered to refer any question affecting natives to a Judge of the High Court, who is required to report on the question, whereon the High Commissioner may act as he thinks fit. Moreover the Administrator shall, if required by the High Commissioner, appoint in any magisterial district a subordinate tribunal consisting of the Magistrate and two Assessors who shall report to the High Commissioner on all questions regarding natives which he chooses to refer to it.

In the case of a revolt against the Company or other misconduct on the part of a native Chief or tribe, the Administrator may impose a reasonable fine, but the High Commissioner may remit the fine in whole or in part. *Punishment of Revolt.*

Moreover in all cases respecting natives the High Commissioner is required to transmit a report to the Secretary of State with copies of all documents, and the Secretary of State may review the case and modify the decision, but no such review can take place unless within twelve months after receiving the report. The Secretary of State will give notice to the High Commissioner of his intention to review the case.

PART III. In accordance with this Order in Council the High Commissioner's Proclamation No. 2 of 1911 abolished the Courts of the Administrator of Barotsiland—North-Western Rhodesia, the High Court of North-Western Rhodesia, and the High Court of North-Eastern Rhodesia, and it continued the jurisdiction of the Magistrates' Courts, Native Commissioners and Assistant Native Commissioners and Justices of the Peace on the basis of the jurisdiction existing at the time of the amalgamation of the two Protectorates, until by Proclamations Nos. 1-3 of 1913 fresh provisions were made for the constitution and powers of the Courts of the Territory. Steps have also been taken to amalgamate the Barotse Native Police and the North-Eastern Rhodesia Constabulary: the total of the joint force on March 31, 1912, was 19 officers, 8 British non-commissioned officers, and 750 natives of all ranks. Its powers and constitution are now regulated by Proclamation No. 17 of 1912.

—♦♦—
*The Proclamation
 of 1911.*

§ 2. NORTH-WESTERN RHODESIA

Area. The North-Western section of Rhodesia has an estimated area of about 182,000 square miles, of which about 140,000 square miles are comprised within the boundaries of Barotseland, which is bounded by the Zambesi on the south, the Congo-Zambesi watershed on the north, the Portuguese Possessions on the west, and by North-Eastern Rhodesia on the east.

Barotse-land. Barotseland is essentially a large, treeless, alluvial plain, which is free from tsetse fly, and which affords good winter pasture. The southern boundary of the plain is about 60 miles south of Lialui, the chief kraal, which stands on the banks of the Zambesi, in latitude 15° 13' S. The plain proper, which hardly rises above the level of the river, is 100 miles long by 20 or 30 miles in breadth, and is inundated every year by the rising of the river, which fertilizes it. The rainy season

begins about November, and is at its height early in April, and at that time and for two months afterwards the valley is very unhealthy. In this plain or the sand hills which border it are the dwellings of the Barotse people. But included in the Barotse kingdom are the territories of Batoka and Bashukulumbwe, lying between the Zambesi and the Kafue plain, and of the Balunda or Malunda. The plateaux which these tribes occupy lie at an altitude up to 4,000 feet, and the climate there is said to be healthy, while the plateaux are believed to present considerable possibilities for agriculture, pastoral, and mineralogical purposes. The rains fall between October and April, and at Lialui the average is about 34 inches, droughts being unknown. The whole country falls within the Central African grass land area, which has an average rainfall of from 25 to 50 inches. The Batoka plateau is rich in game, covered with bush, and intersected with highways.

The character of the administration of the country differs. In one portion of the territory the administration of the Company is limited in extent, and use is made in a marked degree of the native machinery, while in another the native administration is relegated to a secondary position. Under Proclamation No. 6 of 1905 there was set up an elaborate scheme of jurisdiction, the essentials of which are preserved but with the merger of the Administrator's Court in the High Court of Northern Rhodesia by the Order in Council of 1911 and the Proclamations of 1913, above cited. But from the operation of both the civil and criminal jurisdiction established by that Proclamation was excepted the territory which, starting from the headwaters of the Dongwe, was bounded by the course of that river and the Kabompo to the junction of the latter river with the Zambesi on the north, by the course of the Zambesi River to its junction with the Machili River on the west and south, and on the east by the course of the Machili to its head-

CH. XII.

*Adminis-
tration.*

PART III. waters, and thence due north to the headwaters of the Dongwe.

—♦♦— The same year saw the amendment of this Proclamation by an express provision that the jurisdiction provided for in the Proclamation could be exercised in the exempted area where in civil cases one of the parties was non-native; and in criminal cases where the accused was not a native, or the person against whom or whose property the offence was committed was not a native, or the offence was one punishable by the law of the territory by death or by imprisonment exceeding six months, or by a fine exceeding £100 or lashes exceeding twelve, or the punishment according to native custom for the offence charged was repugnant to English law. These cases are dealt with by the Court of Mongu, seven miles east of Lewanika's chief kraal at Lialui. Within these wide limits, however, the native tribunals of the Barotse people can still exercise their jurisdiction, and the Company does not possess the power to intervene.

Magistrates and Native Commissioners.

In those parts of the country which are under the direct jurisdiction of the Company there now are, besides the Court of Rhodesia as constituted by the Order in Council of 1911, with a plenary civil and criminal jurisdiction and an appellate jurisdiction, Courts of Magistrates, Native Commissioners, and Assistant Native Commissioners. In addition to the limitations of district imposed on all these minor Courts there are other substantial limitations. Under Proclamation No. 2 of 1913 the Magistrate can only deal with cases where the debt and damages claimed do not exceed £10, where a habeas corpus is applied for, or an order as to the custody of infants is applied for, or an injunction asked to secure the detention or preservation of property, or the commitment of a judgement debtor is asked for. But even within these limits he may not deal with any case when a question of title to land or tenements is involved, or a right to an office, or the validity of a will, or the legitimacy of any person, or the validity or dissolution of any monogamous marriage is in discussion. In

criminal cases the limits of a Magistrate's powers of punishment are normally limited to twelve or, with the consent of a Judge, twenty-four lashes, a fine of £25, or a sentence of twelve months' imprisonment with hard labour; if in any case a higher sentence is required, he is authorized to commit the accused for confinement in gaol and report the case to the High Court for sentence to be awarded, which is then pronounced by the Magistrate. The powers of Native Commissioners are, save in cases of consent, restricted in civil cases to cases in which both parties are natives, and in criminal cases to those in which the accused is a native. Nor can a Native Commissioner inflict any higher punishment than six months' imprisonment with hard labour or a fine of five pounds or ten lashes. An Assistant Native Commissioner has the same jurisdiction when actually appointed to act as Native Commissioner; otherwise the highest punishments which he can impose are three months' imprisonment with hard labour and a fine of five pounds. The Assistant Native Commissioner, in any criminal case where the highest penalty he can inflict seems to him too small, may report the case to the Native Commissioner for sentence, and the Native Commissioner can take the same step with regard to the Magistrate, if he finds that a case tried before him or remitted to him for sentence cannot be adequately punished by the sentences which he can impose.

The efficiency of the conduct of justice is secured by the fact that appeals lie in civil cases from a Magistrate of right on a point of law, and in other cases without limit to the High Court of Rhodesia, and that in criminal cases an appeal lies by order of the convicting Magistrate or of the Court itself or on deposit by the appellant of a sum of £10, to be forfeited if he is unsuccessful in his appeal. In every case, civil and criminal, an appeal lies from a Native Commissioner to a Magistrate. The Magistrates and Native Commissioners are also required to report every month cases dealt with by them

CH. XII.

*Appeals.*

PART III. in the exercise of their criminal jurisdiction, and the High Court may modify any sentence imposed by them, and Magistrates may modify the decisions of Native Commissioners.¹ The existence of the Courts of the Native Commissioners is not to interfere with the exercise of the jurisdiction of the Magistrates, and any native has thus an option whether to take his case before the Native Commissioner or the Magistrate.

Law.

The law of the territory generally is English law, but in any criminal or civil case or action between natives the Courts must be guided by native law so far as it is not incompatible with natural justice, equity and good government. Native law is to be deemed specially applicable to questions of marriage, property real and personal, and inheritance. It may also be applied when one party is not a native, if substantial injustice would be done to either party by strict adherence to the rules of English law. Where questions of native law arise, the Courts may obtain the assistance of one or more assessors who have no vote but whose opinions are recorded in writing. The use of native assistance is also recognized in Proclamation No. 3 of 1913, which authorizes the Administrator to appoint so many Chiefs and Headmen as he thinks fit in each native district to assist the Native Commissioners and Assistant Native Commissioners in the performance of their duties, and such Chiefs and Headmen when appointed have all the rights and duties in respect of native offenders vested in constables or other similar officers of the law.

Legislation for Northern Rhodesia generally is not extensive, the principles of English law, as modified by the regard paid to native custom, proving sufficient for most purposes.

¹ This principle of review is universal throughout South Africa, and is a regular part of the check exercised on Magistrates' decisions in the Provinces of the Union; it is a valuable means of standardizing the operation of inferior courts and of obviating injustice to natives who may not realize the right to appeal.

There are, however, special laws on a few subjects, especially CH. XII.
witchcraft, which as usual is a grave menace to the advance —♦—
of the people.

Proclamation No. 9 of 1912, as amended by No. 13 of *Collective Punishment.*
1912, deals with the imposition of collective punishment, and
applies also to North-Eastern Rhodesia. The Administrator
is authorized to impose fines on all or any of the native
inhabitants of any village or neighbourhood, or on all or any
of the members of any native tribe or community if, after
inquiry, he is satisfied that they have harboured or failed to
take reasonable means to prevent the escape of any criminal,
or have suppressed evidence in a criminal case, or have
neglected to restore stolen property, or have wilfully dis-
obeyed the lawful order of the Magistrate, or that their con-
duct has necessitated the employment of a force of police to
enforce lawful orders or payment of taxes. If a person is
dangerously or fatally wounded or unlawfully killed in a vil-
lage or neighbourhood, the inhabitants are liable to be fined
unless they can prove that they could not prevent the wound-
ing and have used all reasonable means to bring the offender
to justice. The fine may be enforced by distraint or by
imprisonment. No appeal shall lie from any order so made.

The provisions of this Proclamation and of Proclamations *Exemption of the*
Nos. 1-3 of 1913 do not, however, apply within the district de- *Barotse*
fined in the Proclamations of 1913 as bounded by a line drawn *Country.*
from the point on the Anglo-Portuguese boundary where the
13th parallel of southern latitude intersects the 24th meridian
east of Greenwich straight to the junction of the Kabompo
and Dongwe rivers, thence following the Dongwe river up-
wards to its junction with the Lalafupa stream, thence follow-
ing that stream to its source on the Zambesi-Kafue watershed,
thence southward along that watershed to the headwaters of
the Machili River, thence down that river to the point where
it enters the Zambesi, thence up the Zambesi and along the
Anglo-German and Anglo-Portuguese boundaries to the point

PART III. of starting, thus exempting the Barotse country from the effect of the law. This definition of the Barotse territories differs slightly from that given in the Proclamation of 1905 regarding jurisdiction and the Proclamation of 1912, and represents more accurately the dimensions of the country under Levanika's real authority.

Police.

For civil police purposes a Native Police Force is maintained, the strength of which was seventeen officers, seven British non-commissioned officers and 366 men on March 31, 1911. This force is now merged in the Northern Rhodesia Police. There is also a Rifle Association, which numbered at that date 289, of whom 203 were efficient, and interest in the work of the Association is encouraged by the holding of an annual prize meeting. In 1912 the number of members fell to 270.

Revenue and Expenditure.

The expenditure for all purposes during the year 1910-11 amounted to £131,425, the administrative revenue reached £79,065, and the total receipts were £78,204, leaving a deficit of £53,221. The native tax realized £40,975, a slight increase on the preceding year, while arrears of taxation amounting to £7,426 were collected. In 1911-12 the revenue was £98,197, of which £93,391 was administrative, and the expenditure £148,263.

Education.

Education is naturally largely in the hands of the missions, as is the case in North-Eastern Rhodesia. There is a primary school at Livingstone for European children, and a small school at Lusakaas. There is a native school, the Barotse National School, which in 1911 was attended by 169 pupils, as against 140 in the previous year. The results of the examinations were satisfactory, as of 108 candidates presenting themselves for examination 80 passed, 74 per cent. being promoted for efficiency to higher grades. In 1912 the number attending was 172, and at the examination 75 per cent. did well. Of those leaving the school several secured good appointments, such as junior teacher, medical

orderly, interpreter, and so forth. As the boys who are entering are increasingly younger and of the poorer class, it is anticipated that even better results may be hoped for in the future. In addition to the ordinary elementary education, carpentering, bricklaying, brickmaking, and thatching are taught. In the mission schools physical drill has in several cases been added to the curriculum, and elementary hygiene is now generally taught, together with the rudiments of industrial training. In 1912 there were 42 mission stations in the whole of the territory educating 37,000 natives. CH. XII.

While in large measure the natives of North-Western Rhodesia are still in a communal state of development, and are only gradually being brought under the influences of civilization, a certain degree of education in the sphere of work is provided by the recruitment of natives for work on the mines and elsewhere in Southern Rhodesia. The Native Labour Bureau recruited in 1910-11 7,023 men as against 6,716 for the previous year, while the Beira and Mashonaland and Rhodesia Railways employed 1,458 natives recruited in the territory. The Government received in revenue on this ground in that year £1,242, an increase of £230 over the sums secured for the previous year. In 1911-12, however, the number for the whole of Northern Rhodesia fell to 5,969.

The European population of North-Western Rhodesia in 1911 was stated to be 1,238, of whom 305 were women, there being a total increase of 196 as compared with 1910. The births for the year 1910-11 were 26, as against 19 in the previous year, and the death-rate fell from 37.42 to 27.87 per thousand. The most satisfactory feature of the returns was the decrease in the number of deaths due to malaria and blackwater fever. The native population was estimated at 379,055, as against 357,586 in the previous year. Of this number 9,565 were set down as being engaged as domestic or other servants in European employment, 930

PART III. as working on the mines, and 368,560 as living under tribal
—♦♦— control.

Imports. The total imports into the country for 1911 amounted in value to £143,290 imported via Livingstone and to £1,759 imported by other routes. These figures compare at first sight unsatisfactorily with figures for the preceding year, which reached a total of £200,841, but in that amount were included goods to the value of £68,241 in transit to the Belgian Congo and to North-Eastern Rhodesia. For the government of the territory were imported goods valued at £8,432 as against £12,087 in the previous year, while specie declined to £15,349 from £18,235. The British Empire claimed the largest share of the imports with a total of £75,775, of which £71,377 fell to the United Kingdom, only Canada and India having over £1,000 to their credit. Foreign countries gave £27,695 via Livingstone, and £413 by other routes. Germany headed the list with goods to the value of £10,059, the United States took second place with £4,837, and Belgium was third with £3,798. Sweden and France alone of the others sent over £1,000 worth of goods. South African produce totalled £41,166, making with the imports from the rest of the Empire an overwhelming balance in favour of the Empire as a whole as the source of Northern Rhodesian supplies.

Exports. The total of exports for the year 1911 was £127,458, exclusive of £9,782 in respect of goods in transit under rebate to the Congo and North-Eastern Rhodesia. The figures in 1910 were £68,391, exclusive of £65,837 in respect of goods in transit. South African produce was exported to the value of £66,878 via Livingstone and Beira, and to the value of £23,398 by other routes: in 1910 the figures were £25,983 and £200 respectively. The rest of the exports consisted of re-exports valued at £17,553 and £19,629 for the two routes: in 1910 the corresponding total were £39,084 and £8,385. The cases in which a considerable

trade was done were of course few: cattle export accounted CH. XII.
 for £20,235 as against £6,323 in the previous year: copper
 ore was valued at £42,316 as against £8,327, raw cotton
 showed a decrease from £980 to £716, maize rose from £51
 to £5,661: unmanufactured tobacco fell from £966 to £314,
 lime rose from £2,503 to £3,274, and india-rubber from
 £225 to £1,572. The figures show eloquently enough the
 fluctuating character of the trade which can be carried on
 with the scanty development of the country.

The customs tariff of Northern Rhodesia was consolidated *Customs.*
 in Proclamation No. 19 of 1912. It is essentially that of the
 Union of South Africa, and the statistics of its trade are em-
 bodied with those of the Union in the official publications of
 the Union. The currency is English.


Mining as yet can hardly be said to be fully established *Mining.*
 except in the case of copper-mining. From the mine at
 Kansanshi a road has been constructed a distance of $86\frac{1}{2}$
 miles to the river at Baya; along this road traction engines
 convey ore. Copper is also being produced at the Silver
 King and Sable Antelope Mines near the Kafue River.
 Nitrates have been discovered in the south-east of the
 Chilanga sub-district in the Luangwa district, iron is being
 developed at Bwana M'kubwa, saltpetre exists in the
 Luangwa district and is made into gunpowder by the natives;
 there is coal in the Lunao valley, and diamond boring has
 been tried. Iron is found at Lusakaas. Gold lead and zinc
 have been located, but in all these cases success is for the
 future. The position has been simplified by the Mining
 Proclamation No. 5 of 1912, which makes it clear that all
 the minerals in the country including North-Eastern Rhodesia
 are the property of the Company. Provision is made for the
 grant of licences for prospecting and for the allotment of
 claims, their transfer and cognate matters, and the settlement
 of a definite law should facilitate proceedings.

Over half a million acres of land have been taken up by *Agriculture.*

PART III. Europeans, of which some 8,000 acres in 1911 were under crop and 419 acres were orchards. The cotton grown is raised by Europeans in the Batoka and Luangwa valleys, and about half the tobacco grown is produced in the Luangwa district. Maize is largely grown in the Batoka country, forming 10,770 bags out of a total of 16,637 in 1910-11. At the end of that year the stock in the hands of Europeans totalled 11,024 cows or heifers, 8,786 oxen, 486 bulls and 4,126 calves. The year was fortunate in seeing no outbreak of anthrax among the cattle. The total for all Northern Rhodesia on March 31, 1912, was 45,962.

*Communi-
cations.*

The chief means of communication in the territory is the railway, which runs from Bulawayo through Northern Rhodesia to the Congo. Livingstone, 287 miles from Bulawayo, is the seat of government with a white population of about 250, and is situated some four miles from the north bank of the Zambesi. The line then bends north-east and runs past Kalomo, 374 miles from Bulawayo, once the headquarters of government, passes Monze, 481 miles, and crosses the Kafue River, 548 miles. At M'womboshi, 621 miles, is an important siding whence a line to the coal deposits seam 25 miles away, discovered in 1909, has been contemplated, while it has been proposed to effect communication with Beira by constructing a line from a little south of this place to Lo Magundi. Broken Hill is 654 miles from Bulawayo, and is the Government centre of the Luangwa district. Reference has been made above to the deposits of lead and zinc which exist in its neighbourhood, but which unhappily have so far proved intractable. The last important station before the Congo frontier is reached at 795 miles from Bulawayo is Bwana M'kubwa, 770 miles, where are copper mines and possible diamonds. N'dola, an administrative post, lies close to the frontier at a distance of 786 miles from Bulawayo, about 12 miles north of the Kafulafuta River. After crossing the border the line runs north-west to

Elisabethville, the head-quarters of the Katanga district, and the junction for the Star of the Congo Mine, 8 miles away. CH. XII.  The population there in 1912 was estimated at 1,760, 235 being British, and Northern Rhodesia profits substantially by its trade with the Katanga district. The further extension of the line to Kambove, where is the reputedly very wealthy Union Minière copper mine, is expected to add considerably to the demand for the farm produce of the territory.

The rivers also afford assistance in communication. From Kazungulu, 40 miles above Livingstone, from which it is separated by rapids, the Upper Zambesi¹ or Liambai is navigable for canoes with two short portages at Nambwe and Gonye past the Kabompo River to the Sapuma rapids. The Lungubungu, which enters the Zambesi to the west in lat. 14° 18' 42'', is navigable for a short distance, while the Kabompo, which enters the river 8 miles further up from the east, is also navigable. The upper reaches of the Kwito River, a tributary of the Okovango, flow through plains at an altitude of about 4,000 feet, and with some engineering work the river might, it is said, be made an effective waterway for 1,000 miles in length. The Kafue River is navigable for a distance of 200 miles above the railway bridge: during the rains the banks are flooded for some miles on either side and yield good pasturage, and the land is said to be suitable for corn growing, while the population is fairly thick. *The Rivers.*

Telegraphic communication exists with the Congo, and there is a postal service with the Congo, North-Western Rhodesia, and through Southern Rhodesia with the rest of South Africa and the outer world. Rhodesia is a member of the International Postal Union and shares in the British penny postal system. The revenue of the Telegraph and Postal Departments for 1910-11 was £4,305, as against an expenditure of £6,581. *Tele-graphs.*

¹ The source of the Zambesi as discovered in 1899 by Major Gibbons is 'a black bog situated at an altitude of about 5,000 feet, and in lat. 11° 21' 3'' S. by long. 24° 22' E.'

§ 3. NORTH-EASTERN RHODESIA

PART III.

—♦—
*The
 Plateau.*

Rivers.

Of what was formerly North-Eastern Rhodesia, with an area of 109,000 square miles, the most important portion is the Tanganyika plateau, the greatest of the series of plateaus of which the country consists. It varies in height from 4,000 to 6,000 feet above sea-level, and on the north it is bounded by Lake Tanganyika, on the north-east by Lake Mweru, 3,000 feet above sea-level, on the south-west by Lake Bangweolo, 3,765 feet, and on the south by the Muchinga Highland, while in the east lies Nyasaland and Lake Nyasa. The area of the plateau-land lies roughly between the eighth and twelfth parallels of south latitude, and the thirtieth and thirty-fourth parallels of east longitude. The country is well watered, and the banks of the streams are often bordered with clumps of tall trees interlaced with creepers. But for purposes of transport the rivers are somewhat unsatisfactory. The principal river of the plateau is the Chambeshi, which is navigable to Kavinga's. But though deep at Kavinga's, at the Bangweolo estuary it diverges into many shallow channels. During the dry season it is navigable for light draught steamers to within 50 miles of its mouth where the first rapids occur: thence up stream its course is obstructed by rapids and shallows. But in flood, that is for nearly half the year, it can be navigated for about 130 miles from the mouth, and all the year round, flat-bottomed boats or barges could be used on it, and in point of fact the Chabisi Wabisa use it all the year round with their light canoes. Native traders, hiring canoes from the Wabisa, also use the Chambeshi as a highway to the mouth of the Rukuru River, up which they go to Kasama. Use is also made of the tributaries of these rivers such as the Luansenshi, the Munekashi, the Lulingila, and the Luena, which are available even for light draught steamers for some distance. The Luitikila is navi-

gable perhaps as far as Nkandochiti, a few miles above which there are rapids. On the Kalungwisi, which falls into the Mweru, there are great falls which offer possibilities of the development of electric power, and the Lofo River running into Tanganyika might be used for navigation, and could easily be connected by portage with the Bangweolo river system. Lake Bangweolo has in the dry weather an area of over 1,600 square miles, which is doubled in the rains; much, however, is only swamp, and nowhere is it over 15 feet deep. Lake Mweru is 68 miles long, and has an average breadth of 24 miles. The marshes to the east form a reserve for elephants.

CH. XII.

*The Lakes.*

Of the natural products of the country the most important is probably rubber: it exists in smaller or larger quantities practically all over the plateau. In the West Luangwa district the altitude is as a rule too great for rubber, which is found only on the banks of rivers running down the Muchinga escarpment. The North Luangwa district and the Awemba country contain several large rubber-bearing areas, of which the most important lie round Mwaruli, the burial-place of the Awemba kings. Protection was accorded to rubber in 1903, and since that date there is stated to have been a considerable increase in the number of plants, the landolphia spreading quickly where protected. In July, 1910, nearly 400 acres of ceara were under cultivation. The so-called root rubber also flourishes: there being much on the Chambeshi River itself, and in the Luwingi division: it has been held to be really a species of landolphia, of which the stems, through want of suitable support, have spread laterally instead of vertically.

Rubber.

The cultivation of cotton, which is grown to some extent by the natives, has been tried, and two Egyptian varieties, Abassi and Afifiri, have fetched satisfactory prices in the market, as much as 1s. 2d. per lb. being realized. A thousand acres were under cultivation in 1910, but in 1911 the

Cotton.

PART III. season proved somewhat unfavourable: seed was in some places planted too late, the supplies of seed were not satisfactory, and the rains ended too soon. More serious still is the lack of transport facilities in the absence of any railway communication in the territory itself, which renders progress very slow. Other miscellaneous products which offer possibilities of future development are native tobacco, cassava (which is grown very largely in the vicinity of Lake Bangweolo), cam-wood, chillies, rice, ground-nuts, and red and white gums.

Timber. The timber trees of the country fall into two classes, those with a hard heart, red or brown in colour, ant and borer proof, and an outer white sap which is easily pierced by ants, borers, and rot. These trees flourish in the inland districts away from marshy land, and require a dry soil. The second class of trees is more homogeneous in texture, and is usually found in water: the Central African rivers frequently spread their waters widely in flat country, and it is in such places that these trees attain their greatest size, but they cannot resist ants and borers effectively. The heart tree, *mulombwa*, corresponding to the oak, is the most valuable for commercial purposes, while the *nsananga*, which resembles the beech, though not a heart tree, is nevertheless ant and borer proof, and available for building purposes. Another tree is similar to the cedar, and though not ant-proof is used for furniture.

Cattle. Cattle can be raised successfully if care is taken in providing them with suitable feed throughout the year, as can easily be done, and even the native cattle, despite unfavourable circumstances, do well; but they are subject to attacks of tsetse fly. The only markets available are far in the south, across the Congo border, and at the mines, and the difficulties of transport render the industry a precarious one. The same conditions militate against the rearing of native sheep and goats. Other native industries of some possibility

of development are those of cloth-making, of lime-burning, and of the production of cement. CH. XII.

The climate of North-Eastern Rhodesia is in the main healthy: there are indeed a few malarious spots, but these can be avoided. Neurasthenia is not rare, but the high elevation and the isolation of life render this not unnatural, and the same causes conduce to the appearance of undesirable nervous symptoms in the case of other diseases. But the climate permits of the presence of, comparatively speaking, a large proportion of married women, and this factor tends to discourage the temptation to drugs and drink. From the mere point of view of health, it is possible that the country may be deemed fitted for permanent European settlement, but the lack of social and educational facilities, the scarcity of doctors, the want of nurses, and other considerations, render it difficult for the present at least to maintain a real European society on the plateau, despite its healthiness. *Climate.*

One disease, however, must be taken into account in estimating the possibilities of the future. In the earlier days of the struggle against sleeping sickness, it was held that the medium by which the disease was carried from man to man, or from animal to animal, and animal to man, was the variety of tsetse fly known as *Glossina palpalis*. In 1907, for the first time, cases of the disease were diagnosed in North-Eastern Rhodesia, and after full research it became impossible to deny that the probabilities pointed to the fact that these cases could not have contracted the disease in the ordinary way of infection through *palpalis*. In 1911 the Company dispatched an expedition to the Luangwa valley under the general direction of Dr. Aylmer May, Principal Medical Officer for Northern Rhodesia, for the purpose of conducting an exhaustive inquiry into the question of the cases of sleeping sickness. The expedition included Dr. Kinghorn and Dr. Warrington Yorke, Director of the Runcorn Research Laboratory of the University of Liverpool, besides a trained *Sleeping Sickness.*

PART III. bacteriologist and an entomologist, while at the same time
 —♦— an expedition under Sir David Bruce proceeded to Nyasaland to investigate conditions there, where also the disease had appeared in places where the *palpalis* could not be found. The results of these two expeditions are not yet finally known, but so much is clear that that disease or an allied disease (for it is possible that the two diseases are not identical¹) can be conveyed by means of the *Glossina morsitans*, and that this fact is of serious import. *Palpalis* is comparatively easy of attack, as it clings to water, and can therefore be avoided or destroyed without much difficulty, but the destruction of *morsitans* seems beyond all reasonable possibility. On the other hand, it appears that the researches of the Rhodesian Commission have shown that the removal of wild animals whose blood harbours the parasite of the disease should be of service in checking the spread of the infection.² Fortunately, too, it seems as if other circumstances in Northern Rhodesia are not favourable for the spread of the disease, judging by the small number of non-imported cases which have yet been found. No effort has been spared by the Administration to cope with the problem: segregation has been enforced at great expense, and the border guarded to prevent the entry of infected natives.

Population. The European population of North-Eastern Rhodesia is given in the Administrator's Report for 1910-11 as 259, of whom 71 were women. The native population was put down at 441,930, as against 438,500 for the previous year. Of these 2,161 were engaged as domestic or other servants for Europeans, 295 were working on mines, and the overwhelming majority were living under tribal conditions.

The Native Tribes. The leading tribe is the Awemba, a strong, intelligent, adventurous race, formerly turbulent and a menace to the

¹ Cf. *Journal of the African Society*, xii. 209.

² Cf. Selous, *Journal of the African Society*, viii. 121-9; x. 353-5. This most important question has been referred to the consideration of a Commission appointed by the Secretary of State for the Colonies in July, 1913.

weaker tribes, but since their defeat in 1898 amenable to control and peaceful. They constitute the aristocracy of the country, and the dignity of the men and the grace of the women even among commoners are said to be remarkable. Their character and customs have been fully discussed by Messrs. C. Gouldsbury and H. Skeane in *The Great Plateau of Northern Rhodesia*¹, from whose account these particulars are taken. To the north-west live the Alungi, and to the north-east the Amambwe, pre-eminently an agricultural and pastoral people, who suffered severely from the Awemba, and were only saved from extermination by the advent of the London Missionary Society and the Rhodesian Administration; they are valuable as station workers, and possess considerable intelligence, but their physique is not of the highest class. Closely connected in stock with the Amambwe are the Walungu, whose original home was south of Lake Tanganyika, and who also suffered severely from the Awemba. They possess a good deal of intelligence, probably as a result of intermarriage with Alungwana or Bastard Swahili and intercourse with Arab traders, but their physical courage is doubtful. The Winamwanga reside in the Fife division and cultivate tobacco largely. Peaceful and reserved, they are very law-abiding, crime being almost unknown; their chief lives in German territory, but is still recognized by the tribe. Their neighbours on the south, the Awiwa, are also peaceful cultivators of tobacco, and to the south and south-east near the Nyasaland border lie the small tribes of the Walambia, the Nyika, the Wayombe, and the Wafungwi. The Wabisa form a large section of the Mirongo district, and are found also in the Kasama district and around Lake Bangweolo; they were severely handled by the Awemba, but were once a great industrial people, bartering the cotton cloths and iron which they produced, besides salt and dressed skins with surrounding tribes, and so becoming

¹ See Sir H. Johnston, *Journal of the African Society*, xi. 141-50.

PART III. rich in sheep and goats. To the south of Lake Bangweolo are found the Waunga, the least known and least well controlled of the native tribes. The young men of the tribe move much about, fishing and hunting; the tribal organization is loose, and murders, raids for women and fights in the swamps are still not unknown.

The Wasenga. The Luangwa valley is inhabited by the Wasenga, who suffer from a very bad water-supply. In the rains the country is flooded, while in the dry season it is necessary to dig for water in the sand. Long oppression by the Awemba, Arabs, and Angoni have made this industrious people easily scared and shy. There are also the Wanyamwezi, who came to the country with the Arab and Swahili traders, and who cultivate largely and show superior intelligence to the surrounding tribes. There are further round Fort Jameson the Angoni, and in the Muchinga Mountains the Wawinga. Ethnographically the races of the country are clearly Bantu in main characteristics, with here and there Swahili mixture. The offspring of mixed marriages of native women and Swahili are described as being great traders and as cultivating largely.

Administration. The administration of the country is essentially based on the importance of interfering as little as possible with native organization and utilizing to the utmost the service of the existing social scheme. The land tenure of the Bantu here, as in the rest of South Africa, rested on a few simple principles. The chief, who was politically paramount, exercised over the land of the tribe various rights which should probably be regarded as flowing rather from his paramountcy than as rights of ownership. He could not sequester the village lands, nor could he hand them over to an alien owner. He could induct his sons to be in charge of large provinces which they administered and from which they drew customary revenues, but technically the country remained the king's, much as the Norman king

Land Tenure.

could grant large rights over portions of English territory without depriving himself of the ultimate sovereignty. These overseers could not, though of royal blood, deprive a village of its right to the surrounding land. Any dispute as to productive land between two villages could be disposed of only by the paramount chief by virtue of his sovereignty. In the village there were common rights of grazing over the unreclaimed land near the village. At one time the headman divided the land suitable for cultivation among the various heads of families and saw to the observance of the boundaries thus laid down. Later, with the advance of peace, the heads chose their own allotments. But there was no idea of any ownership of land as distinct from active possession. Any person by the cutting down of a few boughs of trees preparatory to burning them in order to fertilize the plot of earth on which they were laid could claim the plot, and so long as he cultivated it his title would be a good one, but his occupation was his sole security for retaining possession, nor had any individual any right to sell his land. Under the ordinary scheme of cultivation plots were changed from year to year, and the small population hampered the growth of conceptions of individual property in land. No change has been introduced into the native law of land tenure, though the political power of the King is now vested in the British South Africa Company. It is, however, now possible for a European to acquire a good freehold title to land from the Company. But he must in the first instance buy out the native claim, and pay survey fees, and Regulation No. 1 of 1905 provides a system of land registration, which together with the requirement of survey should diminish greatly the difficulty of deciding as to land ownership. As the numbers of Europeans show, the question of the extent to which natives may part with land is not yet of great practical importance.

The criminal and the civil law of Rhodesia are, as we *Native Law.*

PART III. have seen, English, but in civil matters this is greatly modified by the requirement that native law should be given effect to where it is not repugnant to natural justice and morality nor to positive enactment. Both civil and criminal jurisdiction is administered by the Courts of the Magistrates and Assistant Magistrates and by the Native Commissioners and Assistant Commissioners. In criminal matters a Magistrate can impose a sentence of twelve months' imprisonment with hard labour, or a fine of £25, or twenty-four lashes, but the sentence of lashes must be confirmed by a Judge of the High Court if the number exceeds twelve. If the sentences mentioned are inadequate the Magistrate may convict, and send the report of the case to the High Court for the decision as to sentence, which he then pronounces in open Court including a sentence of death. No death sentence can, however, be carried out without the consent of the High Commissioner, and the penalty is normally not inflicted, except in serious cases of murder. The Native Commissioners have a less extended power of punishment, up to six months' imprisonment with hard labour, ten lashes, and a £5 fine, while the Assistant Native Commissioners have still more limited powers, serious cases being left to the Magistrates or the High Court to deal with. Uniformity of treatment is, however, secured by the fact that the Magistrates and Native Commissioners report monthly to the High Court, thus enabling the Court to call attention to and provide a remedy for irregularities of sentence or action.

*Criminal
Jurisdiction.*

*Civil
Jurisdiction.*

The civil jurisdiction of the Magistrate or Native Commissioner extends only to minor cases instituted against persons or companies resident in his district in which the debt or damages claimed do not exceed £100, to the issue of writs of habeas corpus, to making orders for the custody of infants, and to granting injunctions to stay waste or for the preservation of property, and to restrain breaches of contract or torts, and to the commitment of judgement debtors. The jurisdiction does not extend to any case which involves a ques-

tion of legitimacy or dissolution of a monogamous marriage, or of title to land, or to a right, duty, or office, or to try the validity of any will. In these cases the High Court alone has competence, and that Court has also unlimited civil and criminal jurisdiction in all causes. The High Court has further an appellate jurisdiction in every case from the inferior courts; in criminal cases, however, the consent of the inferior Court or the special leave of the High Court is essential, or the accused must deposit the sum of £10 to be forfeited if the appeal is unsuccessful. But the High Court may itself, on its own motion, take action to revise a sentence imposed by a Magistrate or Native Commissioner and reported to it. In civil cases native law is normally applicable in suits between natives, and especially in suits relating to marriage and the law of property real and personal, but it is applied also in cases where Europeans are parties, if substantial injustice would be done to either party by strict adherence to the rules of English law.

Year by year, while retaining and assimilating many of the better features of native law, the Magistrates and Commissioners gradually modify the native code, relying in complex cases in large measure on the assistance of assessors. Steady efforts are made to deal with the few serious criminal offences which still often occur, and in 1910 stringent penalties were imposed on witchcraft ranging from a fine of £250, thirty-six lashes, and seven years' imprisonment with hard labour to imprisonment for six months. Another serious offence is the making of concealed and staked game pits which capture man and beast alike, while the wasteful destruction of trees in the process of agriculture is also forbidden. In civil matters disputes arising out of marriages are especially frequent and troublesome.

Under the regulation issued in 1909 the duties imposed on a tribal chief are the reporting of disorder on the part of native messengers, the provision of men for defence, and the

*Tribal
Chiefs.*

CH. XII.
—♦—

PART III. suppression of disorder within the territory, the securing of
 —♦♦— the general good conduct of the natives under him, the prompt notification of crime, or outbreaks of disease among the people or their stock, the due publication of orders of Government, the nomination of headmen for appointment, the notification of the arrival of strangers, and assistance in

Headmen. the collection of the hut tax. The duties of headmen are ancillary to those of the chief; they are responsible for the good conduct of the people, and have rank as constables within their districts, and may effect arrests in certain cases

Messengers. and are bound to assist the native messengers. Messengers perform the useful function of carrying messages on Government business, of warning natives of the collection of the hut tax, of summoning parties in civil cases, and of reporting irregularities and crimes. The misuse of their position is guarded against by severe punishments for misconduct. Besides the native messengers there is a Constabulary Force of civil character, but armed with rifles. The military defence of the territory is not entrusted to the Company, and a subsidy has been annually paid to the Government of Nyasaland for defence by the King's African Rifles. The law prohibits the ownership of firearms or ammunition by natives or Asiatics except in virtue of a special permit, though any Asiatic may be exempted from the operation of this rule and though on certain conditions permits may be given to natives to have arms and ammunition, particularly in connexion with the protection of caravans.

Missions. Civilizing work among the natives is practically entirely in the hands of the missionary societies, which in North-Eastern Rhodesia have had a singularly free hand and a fair field for their work. The London Missionary Society was first in the field with an establishment near the present Kawimbe in 1885; their work, first carried on among the Amambwe, was extended to the Alungi and finally in 1900 was carried to the Awemba. Their work is not merely religious; educa-

tion forms an important part of their activity ; their schools in 1911 provided for over 5,500 pupils, and besides the elements of reading and writing the natives are taught building, carpentering, furniture-making, and joinery. At Kawimbe and Mporokoso in the Awemba country, the mission maintains not only dispensaries used by thousands of natives annually but also hospitals. There has also been established in 1910 a central training school for the native teachers, on whose co-operation the work essentially depends.

The White Fathers, who are trained at the Maison Carree in Algiers, represent Roman Catholicism in the country. After tentative efforts in 1891 they settled at Kayambi in 1895, and that remains still one of the principal stations. Another is that founded in 1898 at a place called Chilubula by the natives resident there, whom the efforts of the missionaries rescued from injury in the commotion following the death of the chief Mwamba. The chief in the last days of his life had invited the missionaries to visit him, doubtless in the hope of being cured by their medical skill. At the two main stations there are also houses of White Sisters, and the churches at these stations are tended with great care, and reserved entirely for religious services, the whole life of the station being made in the usual method of Catholic missions to revolve round the sacred edifice. The pupils in their schools numbered 7,220 in 1911.

The Livingstonia Mission, commenced in 1875 by the united efforts of the Scottish Churches as a memorial to Livingstone, at first confined its work to Nyasaland, working among the Angoni and Atonga tribes. Gradually they extended their efforts to Rhodesia, and in 1895 a definite step was taken in opening a station at Mwenzo in Fife. The Administration of North-Eastern Rhodesia suggested boundaries for the various missions, and the Livingstonia mission was allotted the whole of the Fife, Chinsali, and Mirongo divisions and parts of Mpika, Lundazi, and Serenje.

CH. XII.
—♦—

*The White
Fathers.*

*Living-
stonia
Mission.*

PART III. They have a very large number of schools, 319 in 1911, with
—♦— 455 teachers and 17,647 pupils. The education is naturally and inevitably very elementary in the case of all those who are not to be trained as teachers, but the missionaries also do much medical work, and the pupils have learned in many cases building and furniture-making, though the latter industry is hampered by the lack of good markets. Mission and educational work is also done by the Dutch Reformed Mission, which in 1911 had 6,187 pupils in its schools.

*The
Results
of the
Missions.*

The special circumstances of North-Eastern Rhodesia render it more easy than usual to estimate the effect of the teaching of the missionaries. Their work has undoubtedly improved the intellectual capacity of the natives, and it forms an indispensable preliminary to any development of the native character. If increased intellectual capacity has not always been accompanied by increased moral sense, that fact can hardly be placed to the discredit of the missionaries. Nor are they fairly to be blamed because many of the natives tend to show undue conceit as the result of training, for conceit is a natural failing of the whole people. Much is done in the way of industrial training, considering the difficulties interposed by the lack of adequate markets, and that family dissension is often the result of missionary influence is the inevitable result of the contact of men practising and preaching monogamy with a naturally polygamist people which in some measure assigns an undue proportion of work to women.

On the other hand the advent of railway connexion with Tanganyika through German territory, which is inevitable, will complicate the situation by introducing the competition with the Christian missionaries of the Mohammedan faith. That faith has made such remarkable strides in West Africa among the British Protectorates that its advent to Rhodesia will be a matter of grave importance in the history of the country, and the coming of Mohammedan missionaries will

severely test the steadfastness of the Christian converts. The faith of the Prophet has unquestionably high attractions for a people which practises polygamy and is essentially material in its conception of things spiritual. CH. XII.

The other educational influence which is brought to bear on the native is working in the southern mines. The numbers so recruited are not very large : thus they amounted only to 1,580 in 1909 and to 3,279 in 1910, and there is considerable reluctance among the natives to make the journey, though the arrival of the railway at N'dola has brought Bulawayo within three weeks of the more remote parts of the territory. The native too dislikes leaving his family for more than a year, even to earn the comparatively high wages offered in the south, and the chiefs do not like the loss of the tribal labour which they expect from the tribesmen, and complain that the boys on their return are unruly and unwilling to share their gains with their seniors. The Awemba too are clannish and need careful handling to secure good work. Moreover it is said, probably with some degree of truth, that the men who go south are apt to return somewhat spoiled in character from their intercourse with the varied and often unsatisfactory types of native which they meet at their work. The advantages on the other hand claimed for the visit south are that the native learns what real hard work is, and that his intelligence is sharpened by contact with men black like himself, but of various races and often of keener intelligence. *Work on the Mines.*

Taxation is levied on the native in the form of a hut tax of three shillings on each hut occupied by him or his often numerous wives. In 1910-11 the amount so raised amounted to £16,741, an increase of £12,000 over the previous year. The total revenue for the year from all sources was £25,413 as against an expenditure of £48,634, and the administrative revenue was £24,409. It is probable that the hut tax could be increased in some measure without undue pressure on the *Native Taxation.*

PART III. native. In 1911-12 receipts were £24,421 and expenditure
—♦—♦—♦—
£40,543.

*Customs
Tariff.*

Under regulations of 1905 duties were levied on firearms, ammunition, and liquor imported into the territory. As a result of the amalgamation a uniform Customs Tariff has been made applicable to the whole of Northern Rhodesia lying outside the area of the Congo basin as defined in Chapter I, Article I, of the General Act of Berlin of 1885, and within that area the tariff is closely approximated to the general Customs Tariff. There are levied export duties on rubber and ivory, licence and stamp duties of varied kinds.

Trade.

Statistics of the trade of North-Eastern Rhodesia are not available, but in 1911 the total acreage taken up by European settlers was 145,000 acres, of which 1,944 acres were under crops and 2,351 lying fallow. There were 50 acres of orchards and 948 under rubber. The cotton crop for the year 1910-11 was 84,616 lb., entirely grown in the East Luangwa district. In 1912 there were 4,000 acres under crop in that district; the British South Africa Company has a ginnery at Mazabuka. The crop of tobacco was only 710 lb., grown in the North Luangwa district. Europeans owned 9,791 head of cattle, 4,942 being cows or heifers, 2,309 oxen, 345 bulls, and 2,195 calves.

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B.V. Darbstein

